THRILLING STORIES of The RUSSIAN-JAPANESE WAR

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J. Martin Miller

Nelson A. Miles
Lieutenant General
U. S. Army

To
J. Martin Miller.
Author

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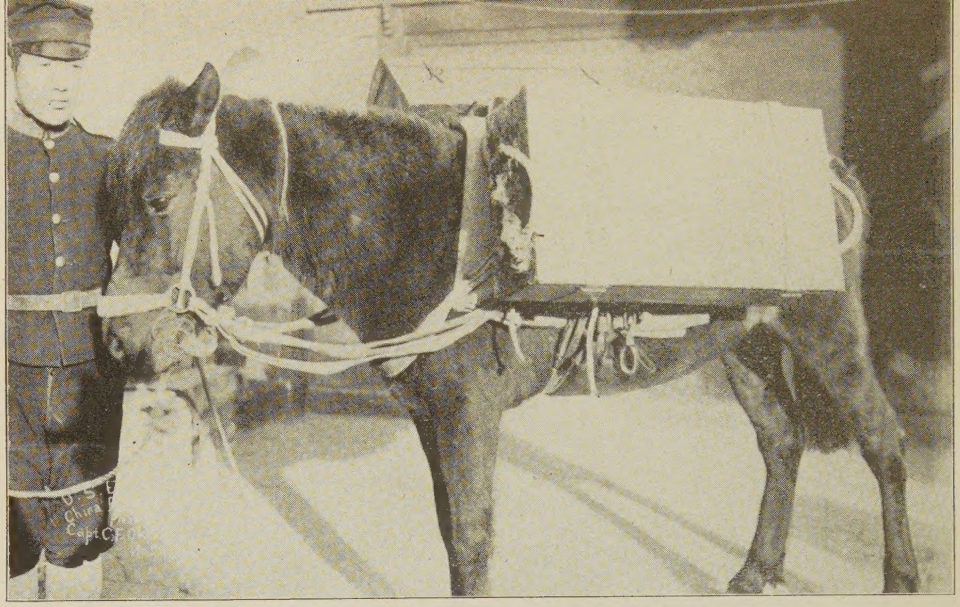
JAPANESE MILITARY ENGINEERS

The soldiers of the Flowery Kingdom may be small in stature, but they are capable of prolonged exertion and equal to any amount of hardship. The Japanese Engineering Corps is one of the best disciplined divisions of the Mikado's army and showed remarkable efficiency in the erection of fortifications and the laying out of defences.



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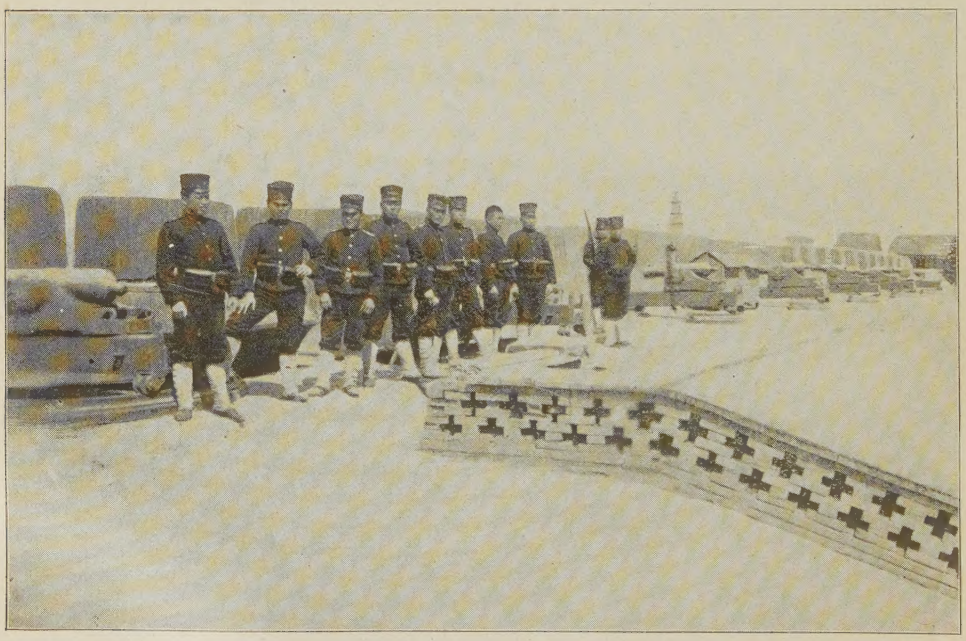
A KOREAN PONY

The disembarkation methods of the Japanese excited as much admiration as did their mobilization of troops. At Chemulpo they purchased a great number of native ponies which they used as beasts of burden. The little animal above shown has a carpenter's kit strapped to his back.



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JAPANESE SOLDIERS OFF DUTY

The compulsory service and the strict physical requirements enabled Japan to put a large bod 7 of trained soldiers into the field at short notice. A report recently received at the U. S. Bureau of Military Information, said: "The Japanese army has established its title as an efficient organization. The men are alert, keen and well disciplined."

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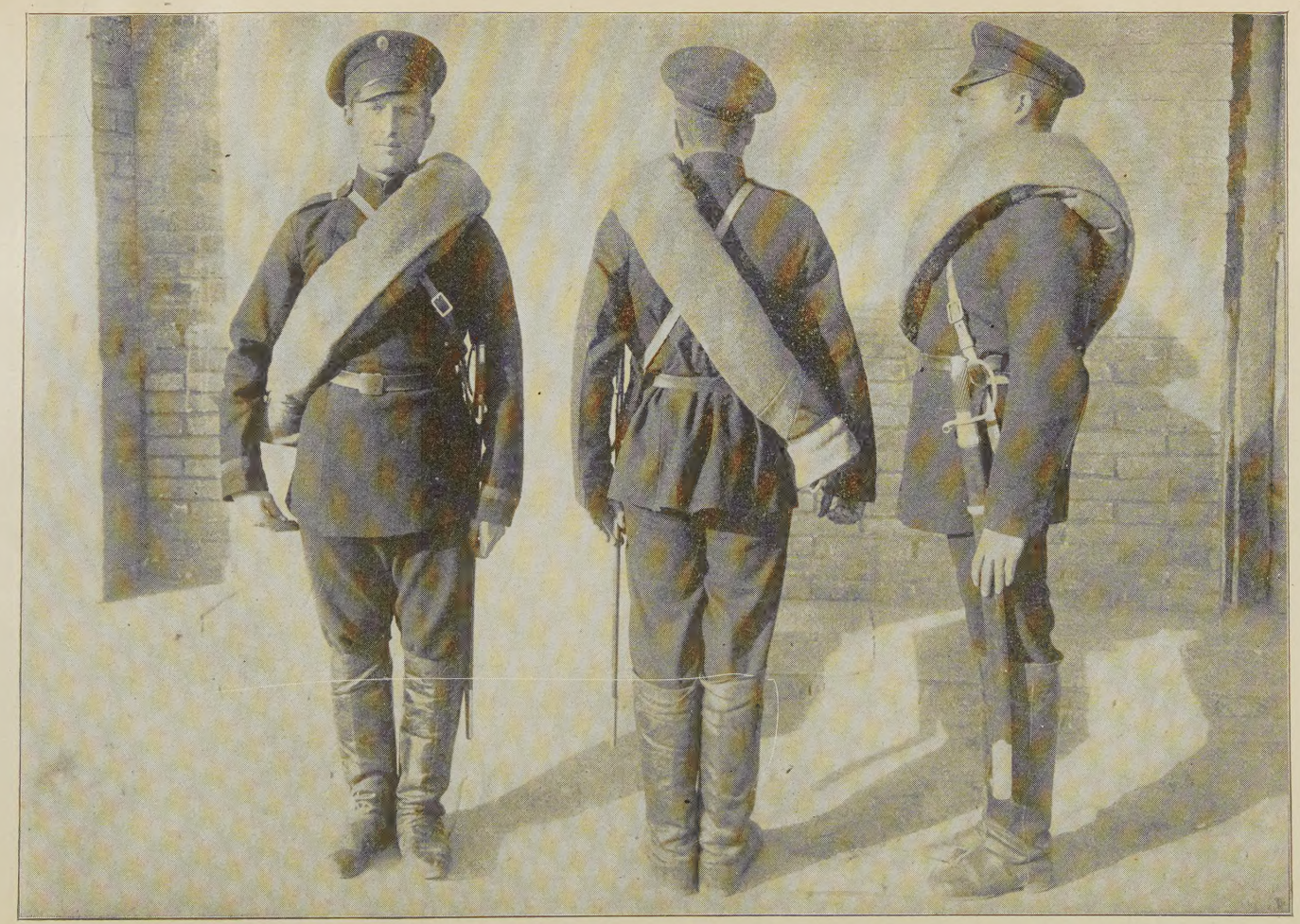
RUSSIAN INFANTRY

The Russian soldier is a fighter, in every sense that the term implies. Sturdy, hardy, and indomitable, they are "foemen worthy of their steel." The above are characteristic types, and show the Czar's defenders in winter uniform ready for marching orders.



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"THE MAN BEHIND THE GUN"

These three splendid specimens of the trained soldier are Russian artillerymen, equipped and ready for duty. This photograph, a remarkable portrayal of racial characteristics, shows the kind of men with whom the Japanese had to contend.

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RUSSIAN COSSACKS

These are the men who worked such havoc among the Japanese troops who landed on the shores of Talienwan Bay. Perfect horsemen, brave to rashness, fierce in onset, with a tiger-like ferocity when in action, they are enough to strike terror to the hearts of the boldest opponent.

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A RUSSIAN SOUP WAGON

The Czar takes good care of his soldiers. A notable feature of the equipment of the Russians is the traveling field kitchen, consisting of a boiler mounted in a special wagon, so arranged that it keeps the army soup hot while being served.

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A RUSSIAN MILITARY CART

This rather rude conveyance is used by Russian engineers for hauling lumber and other materials used in the construction of fortifications, railroads, etc. The sturdy driver, the shaggy pony, with his high-bowed collar, complete a picture, portraying a rather unique phase of military life in the army of the Czar.

THRILLING STORIES

OF THE

Russian-Japanese War

A Vivid Panorama of

Land and Naval Battles

A REALISTIC DESCRIPTION OF TWENTIETH CENTURY WARFARE

THE AWFUL STRUGGLE FOR JAPANESE FREEDOM, THE PEACE AND SAFETY OF THE ORIENT, AND THE PROTECTION OF HELPLESS CHINA FROM THE GREED OF FOREIGN FOES.

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Including Progress, National Traits and Customs, Religion, Philosophy, Personal Adventure, etc.

BY

J. MARTIN MILLER

THE CELEBRATED HISTORIAN, WAR CORRESPONDENT AND TRAVELER

Author of "China-Ancient and Modern;" Twentieth Century Atlas and History of the World; Etc., Etc.

WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY

GENERAL NELSON A. MILES

The greatest military authority in the country, who recently made a tour of the Far East, where his position as Commander-in-Chief of the U. S. Army brought him in close touch with the leaders of the Russian and Japanese forces

Graphically Illustrated with Nearly 100 Superb Engravings

CONSISTING OF LAND AND NAVAL BATTLES, VIEWS OF WAR SHIPS, PORTRAITS OF RUSSIAN AND JAPANESE COMMANDERS, PICTURES OF FAMOUS CITIES, FORTS, TEMPLES AND SNAP-SHOTS OF EVERY-DAY LIFE

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INTRODUCTION

BY LIEUTENANT-GENERAL NELSON A. MILES

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A book that will give a fair description of the territory soon to be occupied by two or more great armies; that shall give, in brief, a history of the country, its inhabitants, their industries, their modes of life, their beliefs or superstitions, their ideals and their ideas of government, of the rights of man and the duties and obligations of man to hereditary, delegated, or usurped power; the history of the various political and military questions that have led up to the impending war, as well as a description of the two immediate contending armies, their differences in personnel, in discipline, in equipment and experience; as well as a forecast of the probable results—must be exceedingly interesting to the reading public at this time in every part of the world.

Mr. J. Martin Miller has been a war correspondent in the Philippines and in the allied campaign in China. He made the march to Pekin with the Japanese army.

He was also with the Russian army during a portion of that campaign. He has been over the ground where the war is now being waged, in Korea, Manchuria and Siberia, and now presents a description of the country and an account of the war between Russia and Japan.

It is singular that in this enlightened age, progressive in art and science if not in political virtue, there should be at this time more hundreds of millions of treasure, drawn from the industries of the people, expended in preparations for war, in the most expensive and

most terribly destructive implements and engines of war, and more millions of men, civilized, semi-civilized and barbarous tribes organized, drilled, disciplined, instructed and equipped for service or sacrifice in the great armies and navies of the world, than at any former period. The great bulk of this expenditure of the energy and life, as well as the treasure of the nations, is useless, and would be unnecessary if reason and justice and humanity could prevail in the place of physical force or high explosives.

The best men in many countries have been advocates and champions of peace.

A Congress of Nations was the most eloquent theme of one of America's most eminent statesmen fifty years ago. Such a high tribunal has been urged by the first of every land. Even the present autocrat of all the Russias has been the foremost man of his age in urging and calling a congress of nations with a view to relieving the people in some degree from the heavy burdens of great standing armies and formidable navies.

Yet, notwithstanding all the better influences and better judgment of many of the best informed and best hearted people of different countries, we find the energies of two great nations being devoted to the bringing together of the physical power of both in a war that must cost tens if not hundreds of thousands of lives and billions of treasure. It cannot but result injuriously to both.

Japan, on the one hand, the oldest dynasty in the world, has been making wonderful strides in useful industries and commercial development. Naturally a peaceful, polite people living in a most beautiful country, universally fond of art and skillful to a high degree—the treasure expended in this war, if it could be devoted to the further development of her civil, educational and commercial interests, would place her prominent among the nations of the world Yet the introduction of modern appliances of war, and her experience and great success over a powerful neighbor ten times her own

numerical strength, have inspired her people with a confidence and martial spirit that will probably be satisfied, whatever may be the result of the struggle, only after a devastating war. Her army and navy are commanded by skillful and experienced officers; both branches of the service are in the main well equipped and under most positive, absolute discipline. Her navy in Asiatic waters is superior to that of Russia, but would not be if the latter were concentrated.

The present and future interests of the great Russian Empire would seem to be best subserved by a long-continued period of peace. Her experience in the last hundred years has demonstrated her military prowess, and the loyalty, fortitude and courage of her people. She has devoted hundreds of millions of dollars in the development of her great civil enterprise, the Siberian Railway, which opens a vast area of sparsely populated country, capable of developing enormous resources and furnishing millions of homes to an industrious, frugal people. She has opened a new avenue of communication and commerce "around the old world." And yet, at a time when peaceful enterprises can best be promoted all must be checked or subordinated to the martialing of mighty hosts to settle a disputed question upon the red fields of war.

What seems to be the pending battle ground, Manchuria, is practically an open country, undulated by hills and valleys and occupied by millions of Chinamen, but a country well adapted for maneuvering large armies, though poorly supplied with sustenance required by armies of such magnitude.

It is not unlikely that within the next twelve months two navies better equipped with all the destructive engines of war, battleships, cruisers, torpedo boats, torpedo destroyers, submarine vessels, high-power, rapid-fire machine guns, will contend for the mastery of the waters, while two great armies composed of hundreds of thousands of brave men and skillful officers, armed with the most destructive

rifles, quick-firing artillery, etc., will clash in mortal combat for each other's destruction, and for the possession of the territories of Korea and Manchuria.

The daily intelligence of this great tragedy will be flashed around the world by the electric telegraph and cables, while the whole civilized world will witness the changing scenes, either with awe or adulation.

Whether there will be any great question of moral or political significance settled by the result remains to be seen; or whether any result which will compensate for the sacrifice is very problematical. Certainly there has recently been no serious problem in which the great powers have been actively concerned, or so many of the human race affected, as the one now pending. Any book that will enable its readers to intelligently understand the condition of the country and follow the movements of the different armies and navies as the campaign develops might well be commended to the reading public.

Nelson A. Miles
Lieutenant General
U. S. Army

Washington D.C.
February 20th 1904

THE JAPANESE POINT OF VIEW

BY KOGORO TAKAHIRA

Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary from Japan to the United States.

[*The author called upon the Mikado's diplomatic representative at Washington the day after the war broke out, when he dictated the following for this work as his view of the situation:*]

My advices from Tokio tell me that the war now going on between my country and Russia began with a Russian attack at Chemulpo, Korea, on Monday last, and not with the Japanese attack at Port Arthur.

My government broke off diplomatic relations with Russia on February 5th. Even though my government did begin the war by attacking the Russian fleet at Port Arthur, there is nothing irregular about it; the action would need no explanation or defence. I simply mention the fact in the interest of historical accuracy.

The likening of our sinking the Russian ships at Port Arthur to the Spaniards' blowing up the Maine in Havana Harbor, as I see the French papers have done to-day, is amusing. This, probably is the first time the French have ever charged the Spaniards with destroying the Maine. If I remember, at the beginning of the Spanish-American War, the French were indignant at any suggestion made in America that their friends, the Spaniards, committed such an act.

I take it for granted that the present crisis in the far East is a matter of grave concern to you and the readers of your book. I hope that I may go further and assume that, in some measure at least, the opinion you have formed is favorable to the cause which my country represents. But whatever your attitude or that of your readers may be, whether in perfect agreement with mine or not, it is not to your

sympathy but to your judgment I would appeal. Let me add, also, that I do not seek to gain from you a larger measure of good will because the interests of our countries in the far East are to some extent identical. No one speaking with knowledge in Japan's behalf has ever made that plea.

All who are familiar with the Eastern situation know that a number of the powers have interests in common in China—interests of the greatest value. Your own government has shown in the most marked manner that it was fully cognizant of the importance of these interests, and alive to the undesirable results that might follow if they were not properly safeguarded. Yet this fact, and others equally well known and equally significant, have not prevented the attempt to picture Japan as pretending that she was acting from altruistic motives, presumptuously arrogating to herself the rôle of champion of a common cause. Nothing could be farther from the truth than this cunning device to arouse prejudice and befog the actual situation. Japan took the initiative because the impending peril, while it threatened others in a measure, was to her a matter of far greater moment.

There is another matter to which I would ask your attention. It has been frequently said—so frequently that the statement may have gained some credence—that a Chauvinistic and aggressive spirit is so predominant among my countrymen as to render an equitable and honorable accommodation of the questions at issue practically impossible. So far as this charge is concerned, I am perfectly willing to let the facts speak for themselves. Undoubtedly the past few months have been a period of public disquiet and excitement in Japan. Equally without doubt, there has been a great deal of irresponsible popular clamor. But in all fairness, was this either unnatural or, reasonably regarded, a just cause for criticism? Supposing that equally vital questions were at issue in this or any other country, and supposing, also, that the negotiations dragged unaccountably or

seemed to be intentionally delayed for an unfriendly purpose, would there not be similar manifestations of discontent and unrest?

The course of the Japanese government itself under these trying circumstances, its manifest determination to neglect no means of peaceful settlement and to essay every avenue of honorable accord, is sufficient to reply to this accusation. Under the wise guidance of His Majesty the Emperor, my august master, the motto of the Empire, the sole rule of action, first and last throughout this controversy, has been peace with honor and safety. In the earnest endeavor to secure this desirable end, His Majesty has had the loyal and cordial support of the enlightened public opinion of the Empire, and I feel confident the verdict of history will be that no prompting of self-esteem, no yearning for self-glorification was permitted for an instant to interfere with the patient effort to secure an equitable and lasting agreement upon the questions at issue.

The position assumed by Japan was the logical result of her environment and of the inexorable necessities of national safety. Considerations not merely of self-interest or self-respect, but of self-protection, have led her to where she now stands. The increase of her military and naval strength has been criticised as an indication of a desire for national aggrandizement at the cost of others. Even if it were not the fact, as it unquestionably is, that her progress along more peaceful lines has been as notable as her military and naval growth, no more convincing evidence than the present crisis is needed to prove that such preparation was the dictate of wise precaution.

The burden upon the nation's resources is not a light one, but think of the infinitely heavier burden Japan would have to bear if, instead of her present neighbors, a potential enemy of uncertain purpose and overwhelming strength was firmly intrenched upon her vast threshold. It is this contingency against which we have to guard, but in attempting to do so we have never sought to impede in any manner the development of the legitimate ambitions of other nations

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or the enjoyment by them of vested rights lawfully acquired. From the outset the representations made in Japan's behalf have been confined within clearly defined limits. They may be summed up in a word —respect for the territorial integrity and independence of China and Korea; faithful observance of treaty stipulations, and due recognition of the validity of the special interest created by existing conditions.

A few days ago I read an editorial in an American newspaper wherein Japan was represented as having interfered without invitation and without warrant in the affairs of China and Korea. Only ignorance of the actual situation could suggest such a criticism. Every impartial observer familiar with the facts must acknowledge, I feel convinced, that Japan's action was in pursuance of clear duty and assured right, and was fully warranted by her conventional relations with both China and Korea.

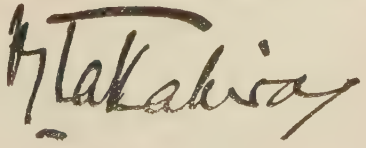
Her sole desire was to terminate a state of affairs clouded with uncertainties which threatened present loss and future danger, and to evolve from indefinite assurances and nebulous promises, regarding matters in which she was vitally interested, an understanding clearly defining the rights and the duties of all concerned. It may have been over sanguine to attempt such a task, but the attempt itself was justified by the law of nations and by an even more imperative obligation in the duty of self-protection.

In 1895 Japan gained a foothold in Manchuria by right of conquest. Russia thereupon took the initiative in intervening on the ground that Japan's occupation of the Li Liao-Tung Peninsula was a menace to the peace of the East and the integrity of China. Afterward, first through undertakings nominally peaceful and subservient to Chinese sovereignty, then on pretext based on internal disorders in China, but at no time justified by actual conditions, Russia herself took armed possession of the whole of Manchuria. She bound herself by treaty to withdraw in 1903, but subsequently made withdrawal contingent upon stipulations, an acceptance of which would not have

left a vestige of real sovereignty to China. Did not this give Japan as good a right to intervene in 1903 as Russia did in 1895? To the ordinary intelligence it would appear that the peace of the East and the integrity of China were menaced quite as much in one case as in the other.

But Japan had another and a stronger reason for intervention. Russia, once the absolute mistress of Manchuria, held Korea at her mercy. When she could, with little effort, sweep away the feeble resistance of that kingdom, it did not require extraordinary foresight to perceive that she would not permit even an independent Korea to remain as a possible embarrassment to her future control of the North Asian litoral. Indeed, the immediate past furnishes significant proofs that Russian agents, official and unofficial, pursuing the line of policy which some term astute diplomacy, but others know by a harsher name, were blazing the pathway to that very goal. Herein lay the real menace to Japan, not alone to her commercial and industrial interests, but to her national repose and security. For this reason she has intervened, not from motives of petty jealousy or hopes of territorial conquest, nor, least of all, because of rankling memories of the Liao-Tung recession. While the present crisis is in a sense the offspring of Russia's action in 1895, the Japanese people are content to deal with existing issues and to leave to impartial history the decision of who played the more honest part in that affair.

The record of all that has occurred will soon be open to every one, and I feel assured that you will find in it ample justification for what I have said. I am confident also that you will see in it good reason to believe that while this issue was not of my country's seeking, she will face it calmly and firmly, not in a spirit of over-confidence, as one underestimating a powerful adversary, but with the assured conviction that in the words of your great President, she is following the right, as God gives her to see the right, and in the end justice must prevail.



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THE RUSSIAN SOLDIER

According to a well-known military authority, the most marked characteristics of the Russian soldier are, sincere love for his monarch, attachment to the fatherland, unlimited confidence in his chiefs, remarkable bravery and a rare contempt of death. These men certainly look as if they would die at the post of duty

THE EMPEROR OF JAPAN REVIEWING HIS ARMY

Mutsuhito, Emperor of Japan, was born Nov. 3, 1852, and succeeded to the throne Feb. 13, 1867. In less than forty years he has brought his country from semi-barbarism to the status of a first-class power in the politics of the world.

AN INCIDENT OF THE WAR

A thousand stories could be told of the bravery of the Japanese troops. The above illustration depicts the capture of one of the enemy's strongholds during the early days of the war. Twice the Japanese were beaten back, but they again rallied and after nearly an hour of hand-to-hand fighting, swarmed in and took the fort.

VARIOUS TYPES OF SOLDIERS OF THE JAPANESE ARMY

Which comprises 11,611 officers and 457,480 men. Left to right: Cavalry Officer, Infantry Officer, Bugler, Infantry Private, Cavalry.

TYPES OF SOLDIERS OF THE RUSSIAN ARMY

Whose war strength is 75,000 officers and 4,500,000 men. Left to right, on foot: Horse Grenadier Guard, Infantry, Circassian Cossack, Hussar, Lancer, Infantry Drummer.

GENERAL KODAMA
Commander Japanese land forces.

ADMIRAL SAITO
Commander Japanese Navy.

ADMIRAL ALEXIEFF
Russian Viceroy in Manchuria.

GENERAL SAHAROFF
Commander Russian Army.

LARGEST TYPE OF VESSEL IN RUSSIAN NAVY

Battleship "Cesarevitz," 13,110 tons, torpedoed with disastrous results by Japanese Feb. 17, 1904. This magnificent fighting machine forms a very striking contrast to "The Little Father of the Russian Fleet," shown elsewhere.

EMBARKATION OF RUSSIAN TROOPS

The transportation of Russia's troops by land and water to the seat of war was a herculean task. The above shows a party of soldiers boarding a transport bound for the Far East—many of them never to return.

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Red Cross Headquarters at Osaka.

CHAPTER I.

THE MIKADO

A Man of Advanced Ideas, His Habits and Appearance—Twenty-five Centuries of Unbroken Succession—The Oldest Book in the Japanese Language—Records Carefully Preserved—The Theatre a Mirror of Actual History—Celebrated Classics of Japan —The Creation.

COMPARATIVELY few foreigners have seen the Mikado of Japan closely. In spite of its wonderful advance in Occidental ideas in recent years, Japan retains enough of its orientalism to insist upon a certain seclusion for its ruler. Mutsuhito breaks away from his purely oriental environment occasionally. He goes among his people incognito. While strolling through the streets of Tokyo as a young man attired as a Japanese sailor, Mutsuhito encountered the first American he had ever seen.

Walking boldly up to this son of Uncle Sam, the boy emperor introduced himself as a young sailor, and, finding the American could speak a little Japanese, he poured forth a flood of eager questions. The traveler from the United States told the supposed sailor a wonderful tale of the results of American civilization. The imperial ambition received new stimulus, and that interview with an American accomplished much for Japan.

A Dynasty Over Two Thousand Years Old.

Mutsuhito, Mikado of Japan, is the present representative of the oldest royal dynasty extant. He was fifteen years old when he ascended the throne in 1867. He is the one hundred and twenty-sixth emperor of his dynasty, which dates back in an unbroken line over 2,500 years. (See list of Mikados at end of Chapter V.) He is the direct descendant of Jimmu, the "Divine Conqueror," who, according to Japanese mythology, "descended from heaven on the bird of the clouds."

Jimmu's first task in his mythological role of divine conqueror was the subjugation of the Ainos, a savage, warlike race, whose descendants are still found in the northern extremity of Japan. Having subdued these fierce Ainos, Jimmu proclaimed himself to be "Tenno," the "Son of Heaven," and established the still existing dynasty in 660 B. C. It is no exaggeration, therefore, to say that through the veins of Mutsuhito Tenno flows the very bluest of the blue blood.

The Mikado's Personality.

Personally, the emperor has a pleasant appearance. He is very tall for a Japanese, almost six feet. He is muscular and well-proportioned. He has a broad, high forehead, and, judged by the most exacting standard of manly beauty, he is a handsome sovereign. The Mikado takes more interest in the government than any of his predecessors. He reads the papers and attends cabinet councils. He takes all the important English and American magazines. He has astonished the upper classes of Japanese by knowing something of the government of his people.

The Mikado lives in a palace built in the American way, with steel framework made in Pittsburg, Pa. This was done to avoid accidents by earthquakes, so common in Japan. Haruko, Empress of Japan, was a daughter of a Japanese noble. She is two years older than her husband; her name, Haruko, means "spring time."

Emperor By Divine Right.

In the Mikado's reign the bands of feudalism that bound Japan to the middle ages were broken; a constitution was granted by him voluntarily; the old social order of caste limitations gave way to a more liberal order of equality; modern education, literature, arts, science and industry were welcomed; the army and the navy were changed from the bow and arrow stage to modern organizations. It was only the remarkable advancement in the reign of Mutsuhito that made it possible for oriental Japan to be equal to the task of a possibly successful war with Russia.

A dynasty of rulers who ostentatiously boast of twenty-five centuries

of unbroken succession should have solid foundation of fact for their boast. The august representatives of the Mikado Mutsuhito, the one hundred and twenty-sixth of the imperial line of Dai Nippon, who, in the presence of the President and Congress of the United States, and of the sovereigns of Europe, claimed the immemorial antiquity of the Japanese imperial rule, should have credentials to satisfy the foreigner and silence the skeptic.

In this enlightened age, when all authority is challenged, and a century after the moss of oblivion has covered the historic grave of the doctrine of divine right, the Japanese still cling to the divinity of the Mikado, not only making it the dogma of religion and the engine of government, but accrediting their envoys as representatives of, and asking of foreign diplomatists that they address His Imperial Japanese Majesty as the "Son of Heaven." A nation that has passed through the successive stages of aboriginal migration, tribal government, conquest by invaders, pure monarchy, feudalism, anarchy, and modern consolidated empire, should have secreted the material for much interesting history.

Historical Lore of Japan.

In the many lulls of peace, scholars would arise, and opportunities would offer, to record the history which previous generations had made. The foreign historian who will bring the necessary qualifications to the task of composing a complete history of Japan, i. e., knowledge of the languages and literature of Japan, China, Korea, and the dialects of the Malay Archipelago, Siberia, and the other islands of the North Pacific, historical insight, sympathy, and judicial acumen, has before him a virgin field.

The body of native Japanese historical writings is rich and solid. It is the largest and most important division of their voluminous literature. It treats very fully the period between the rise of the noble families from about the ninth century until the present time. The real history of the period prior to the eighth century of the Christian era is very meagre. It is nearly certain that the Japanese possessed no writing until the sixth century A. D.

The Earliest Known Writings.

Their oldest extant composition is the Kojiki, or "Book of Ancient Traditions." It may be called the Bible of the Japanese. It comprises three volumes, composed A. D. 711-712. It is said to have been preceded by two similar works, written respectively in A. D. 620 and A. D. 681; but neither of these has been preserved. The first volume treats of the creation of the heavens and earth; the gods and goddesses, called "kami;" and the events of the holy ages, or mythological period.

The second and third give the history of the mikados from the year 1 (660 B. C.) to the 1288th of the Japanese era. It was first printed during A. D. 1624-1642. The Nihonki, completed A. D. 720, also contains the Japanese cosmogony, records of the mythological period, and brings down the annals of the mikado to A. D. 699. These are the oldest books in the language. Numerous and very valuable commentaries upon them have been written. They contain so much that is fabulous, mythical or exaggerated, that their statements, especially in respect of dates, cannot be accepted as true history.

According to the Kojiki, Jimmu Tenno was the first emperor; yet it is extremely doubtful whether he was a historical personage. The best foreign scholars and critics regard him as a mythical character. The accounts of the first mikados are very meagre. The accession to the throne, marriage and death of the sovereign, with notices of occasional rebellions put down, tours made, and worship celebrated, are recorded, and interesting glimpses of the progress of civilization obtained.

Living Pictures of Ancient History.

A number of works, containing what is evidently good history, illustrate the period between the eighth and eleventh centuries. A still richer collection of both original works and modern compilations treat of the mediaeval period from the eleventh to the sixteenth century—the age of intestine strife and civil war. The light which the stately prose of history casts upon the past is further heightened by the many poems, popular romances, founded on historical fact, and the classic

compositions called monogatari, all of which help to make the perspective of by-gone centuries melt out into living pictures.

That portion of the history which treats of the introduction, progress, and expulsion of Christianity in Japan has most interest to ourselves. Concerning it there is much deficiency of material, and that not of a kind to satisfy occidental tastes. The profound peace which followed the victories of Iyeyasu, and which lasted from 1600-1868—the scholastic era of Japan—gave the peaceful leisure necessary for the study of ancient history, and the creation of a large library of historical literature, of which the magnificent works called the Dai Nihon Shi ("History of Great Japan"), and Nihon Guai Shi ("Japanese Outer, or Military History"), are the best examples.

Censorship of the Tokugawa Shoguns.

Under the Tokugawa shoguns (1603-1868) liberty to explore, chronicle, and analyze the past in history was given; but the seal of silence, the ban of censorship, and the mandate forbidding all publication were put upon the production of contemporary history. Hence, the peaceful period, 1600 to 1853, is less known than others in earlier times. Several good native annalists have treated of the post-Perry period (1853-1872), and the events leading to the Restoration.

In the department of unwritten history, such as unearthed relics, coins, weapons, museums, memorial stones, tablets, temple records, etc., there is much valuable material. Scarcely a year passes but some rich trover is announced to delight the numerous native archaeologists.

Records Kept by Local Antiquarians.

The Japanese are intensely proud of their history, and take great care in making and preserving records. Memorial-stones, keeping green the memory of some noted scholar, ruler, or benefactor, are among the most striking sights on the highways, or in the towns, villages, or temple-yards, betokening the desire to defy the ravages of oblivion and resist the inevitable tooth of Time.

Almost every large city has its published history; towns and villages have their annals written and preserved by local antiquarians; family

records are faithfully copied from generation to generation; diaries, notes of journeys or events, dates of the erection of buildings, the names of the officiating priests, and many of the subscribing worshipers, are religiously kept in most of the large Buddhist temples and monasteries.

The priests delight to write of the lives of their saintly predecessors and the mundane affairs of their patrons. Almost every province has its encyclopedic history, and every high-road its itineraries and guide-books, in which famous places and events are noted. Almost every neighborhood boasts its "Old Mortality," or local antiquary, whose delight and occupation are to know the past. In the large cities professional story-tellers and readers gain a lucrative livelihood by narrating both the classic history and the legendary lore.

The theater, which in Japan draws its subjects for representation almost exclusively from the actual life, past or present, of the Japanese people, is often the most faithful mirror of actual history. Few people seem to be more thoroughly informed as to their own history; parents delight to instruct their children in their national lore; and there are hundreds of child's histories of Japan.

Beautiful but Unreliable Literature.

Besides the sober volumes of history, the number of books purporting to contain the truth, but which are worthless for purposes of historical investigation, is legion. In addition to the motives, equally operative in other countries for the corruption or distortion of historical narrative, was the perpetual desire of the Buddhist monks, who were in many cases the writers, to glorify their patrons and helpers, and to damn their enemies. Hence their works are of little value. So plentiful are these garbled productions, that the buyer of books always asked for "jitsu-roku," or "true records," in order to avoid the "zu-zan," or "editions of Zu," so called from Zu, a noted Chinese forger of history.

Models of Elegant Diction.

The vividness and pictorial detail of the classic historians fascinate the reader who can analyze the closely massed syntax. Many of the

pages of the Nihon Guai Shi, especially, are models of compression and elegance, and glow with the chastened eloquence that springs from clear discernment and conviction of truth, gained after patient sifting of facts, and groping through difficulties that lead to discovery. Many of its sentences are epigrams. To the student of Japanese it is a narrative of intensest interest.

The Japanese Book of Genesis.

According to Japanese mythology, at the beginning all things were in chaos. Heaven and earth were not separated. The world floated in the cosmic mass, like a fish in water, or the yolk in an egg. The ethereal matter sublimed and formed the heavens, the residuum became the present earth, from the warm mould of which a germ sprouted and became a self-animate being, called "Kuni-toko-tachi no mikoto." Two other beings of like genesis appeared. After them came four pairs of beings ("kami".) These were all single ("hitori-gami," male, sexless, or self-begotten).

The First Man and Woman.

Proceeding now to the work of creation, the kami separated the primordial substance into the five elements—wood, fire, metal, earth, and water—and ordained to each its properties and combination. As yet, the division into sexes had not taken place. In (Chinese) philosophical language, the male ("yo") and female ("in") principles that pervade all things had not yet appeared.

The first manifestation of the male essence was "Izanagi"; of the female, "Izanami." Standing together on the floating bridge of heaven, the male plunged his jeweled falchion, or spear, into the unstable waters beneath them, and withdrawing it the trickling drops formed an island, upon which they descended. The creative pair, or divine man and woman, designing to make this island a pillar for a continent, separated —the male to the left, the female to the right—to make a journey round the island.

At their meeting, the female spirit spoke first, "How joyful to meet

a lovely man!" The male spirit, offended that the first use of the tongue had been by a woman, required the circuit to be repeated. On their second meeting, the man cried out, "How joyful to meet a lovely woman!" They were the first couple; and this was the beginning of the art of love, and of the human race. The island ("Awaji"), with seven other large, and many thousand small ones, became the Everlasting Great Japan.

The First Child Becomes a Goddess.

At Izanami's first conception, the female essence "in" being more powerful, a female child was born, greatly to the chagrin of the father, who wished for male offspring. The child was named "Ama-terasu o mikami," or, the "Heaven-illuminating Goddess." She shone beautifully, and lighted the heavens and the earth. Her father, therefore, transferred her from earth to heaven, and gave her the ethereal realm to rule over. At this time the earth was close to heaven, and the goddess easily mounted the pillar, on which heaven rested, to her kingdom.

CHAPTER II.

THE GROWTH AND CUSTOMS OF FEUDALISM

The Fujiwara—The Rise of the Shoguns—Influence of the Military Classes—Feudal Etiquette—Armor and Weapons of War—Suicide, a Principle of Honor—Social Forms—The Sword a Divine Symbol—The Samurai.

JAPAN, of all the Asiatic nations, seems to have brought the feudal system to the highest state of perfection. Originating and developing at the same time as in Europe, it became the constitution of the nation and the condition of society in the seventeenth century. When in Europe the nations were engaged in throwing off the feudal yoke and inaugurating modern government, Japan was riveting the fetters of feudalism, which stood intact until 1871. From the beginning of the thirteenth century, it had come to pass that there were virtually two rulers in Japan, and as foreigners supposed, two emperors.

Noble Families Who Furnished the Sho-Guns.

The growth of feudalism in Japan took shape and form from the early division of the officials into civil and military. The Fujiwara, to whom the Emperor Kuwammu (A. D. 782) owed his elevation to the throne, controlled all the civil offices, and at first, in time of emergency, put on armor, led their troops to battle, and braved the dangers of war and the discomforts of the camp. In time, however, this great family, yielding to that sloth and luxury which ever seem, like an insidious disease, to ruin greatness in Japan, ceased to take the field themselves, and delegated the uncongenial tasks of war to certain members of particular noble families.

Those from which the greatest number of shoguns, or commanding generals, were appointed were the Taira and Minomoto, that for several centuries held the chief military appointments. As luxury, corrup-

tion, intrigue, and effeminacy increased at the capital, the difficulty of keeping the remote parts of the empire in order increased, especially in the North and East. The war department became disorganized, and the generals at Kioto lost their ability to enforce their orders.

Acquire Knowledge of Intrigue and Politics.

Many of the peasants, on becoming soldiers, had, on account of their personal valor or merit, been promoted to the permanent garrison of household troops. Once in the gay capital, they learned the details of intrigue and politics. Some were made court pages, or attendants on men of high rank, and thus learned the routine of official duty. They caught the tone of life at court, where every man was striving for rank and his own glory, and they were not slow to imitate their august examples.

Returning to their homes with the prestige of having been in the capital, they intrigued for power in their native districts, and gradually obtained rule over them, neglecting to go when duty called them to Kioto, and ignoring the orders of their superiors in the war department. The civil engineers of the provinces dared not molest, or attempt to bring these petty tyrants to obedience. Having armor, horses, and weapons, they were able to train and equip their dependents and servants, and thus provide themselves with an armed following.

Professional Fighters.

Thus was formed a class of men who called themselves "warriors," and were ever ready to serve a great leader for pay. The natural consequence of such a state of society was the frequent occurrence of village squabbles, border brawls, and the levying of blackmail upon defenseless people, culminating in the insurrection of a whole province.

The disorder often rose to such a pitch that it was necessary for the court to interfere, and an expedition was sent from Kioto, under the command of a Taira or Minamoto leader. The shogun, instead of waiting to recruit his army in the regular manner—a process doubtful of results in the disorganized state of the war department and of the

country in general, had immediate recourse to others of these veteran warriors, who were already equipped, and eager for a fray.

The Distribution of Military Patronage.

Frequent repetition of the experience of the relation of brothers in arms, of commander and commanded, of rewarder and rewarded, gradually grew into that of lord and retainers. Each general had his special favorites and followers, and the professional soldier looked upon his commander as the one to whom his allegiance was directly due. The distant court at Kioto, being utterly unable to enforce its authority, put the whole power of quieting the disturbed districts, whenever the disorder increased beyond the ability of the civil magistrate to repress it, into the hands of the Minamoto and Taira. These families thus became military clans and acquired enormous influence, enjoyed the monopoly of military patronage, and finally became the virtual rulers of the land.

The Power of the Sword.

The power of the sword was, as early as the twelfth century, lost to the court, which then attempted, by every means in its power, to check the rising influence of the military families and classes. They began by denying them high rank, thus putting them under social ban. They next attempted to lay an interdict upon the warriors by forbidding them to ally themselves with either the Taira or the Minamoto.

This availed nothing, for the warriors knew who rewarded them. They then endeavored, with poor success, to use one family as a check upon the other. Finally when the Minamoto, Yoriyoshi, and Yoshiiye conquered all the north of Hondo, and kept in tranquillity the whole of the Kuanto for fifteen years, even paying governmental expenses from their private funds, the court ignored their achievements.

When they petitioned for rewards to be bestowed on their soldiers, the dilatory and reluctant, perhaps jealous, nobles composing the court not only neglected to do so, but left them without the imperial commission, and dishonored their achievements by speaking of them as "private feuds." Hence they took the responsibility, and conferred

upon their soldiers grants of the conquered land in their own name. The Taira followed the same policy in the south and west.

The Court Loses Control of the Provinces.

When Yoritomo became Sei-i Tai Shogun at Kamakura, erected the dual system, and appointed a military with a civil governor of each province in the interest of good order, feudalism assumed national proportions. Such a distribution soon ceased to be a balance, the military pan in the scale gained weight and the civil lost until it kicked the beam. At the end of the Hojo domination, the court had lost the government of the provinces, and the "kuge" (court nobles) had been despoiled and impoverished by the "buke" (military). So thoroughly had feudalism become the national policy that in the temporary mikadoate, 1534-1536, the Emperor Go-Daigo rewarded those who had restored him by grants of land for them to rule in their own names as his vassals.

The Law of Might.

Under the Ashikagas (fourteenth century) the hold of even the central military authority was lost, and the empire split up into fragments. Historians have in vain attempted to construct a series of historical maps of this period. The pastime was war—a game of patchwork in which land continually changed possessors. There was no one great leader of sufficient power to overawe all; hence might made right; and whoever had the ability, valor, or daring to make himself pre-eminent above his fellows, and seized more land, his power would last until he was overcome by a stronger, or his family decayed through the effeminacy of his descendants. During this period, the great clans with whose names the readers of the works of the Jesuits and Dutch writers are familiar, or which have been most prominent since the opening of the empire, took their rise. They were those of Hosokawa Uyesugi, Satake, Takeda, the "later Hojo of Odawara;" Mori, Otomo, Shimadzu, Riuzoji, Ota, and Tokugawa.

Lords and Vassals.

As the authority of the court grew weaker and weaker, the allegiance

which all men owed the mikado, and which they theoretically acknowledged, was changed into loyalty to the military chief. Every man who bore arms was thus attached to some "daimio" (great name) or territorial noble, and became a vassal ("kerai"). The agricultural, and gradually the other classes, also put themselves, or were forcibly included, under the protection of some castle lord or nobleman having an armed following.

The taxes, instead of being collected for the central government, flowed into the treasury of the local rulers. This left the mikado and court without revenue. The "kuge," or Kioto nobles, were thus stripped of wealth, until their poverty became the theme for the caricaturist. Nevertheless, the eye of their pride never dimmed. In their veins, they knew, ran the blood of the gods, while the daimios were only "earth-thieves," and the parvenus of feudalism. They all cherished their empty titles; and to all students of history their poverty was more honorable than all the glitter of the shogun's train, or the splendors of the richest daimio's mansion.

The daimios spent their revenues on their retainers, their personal pleasures, and in building castles. In almost every feudal city, or place of strategic importance, the towers, walls, and moats of these characteristic specimens of Japanese architecture could be seen. The strictest vigilance was maintained at the castle-gates, and a retainer of another daimio, however hospitably entertained elsewhere, was never allowed entrance into the citadel. A minute code of honor, a rude sort of chivalry, and an exalted sense of royalty were the growth of the feudal system.

The Custom of Shaving the Head.

Many of the mediaeval military customs were very interesting. During this period the habit originated of the men shaving the hair off their temples and from the middle of the scalp, and binding the long cue into a top-knot, which was thus turned forward and laid on the scalp. The object of this was to keep the hair out of the eyes during battle, and also to mark the wearer as a warrior. Gradually it became a universal custom, extending to all classes.

When, in 1873, the reformers persuaded the people to cut off their knots and let their hair grow, the latter refused to "imitate the foreigners," and supposed they were true conservatives, when, in reality, the ancient Japanese knew nothing of shaven faces and scalps, or of top-knots. The ancient warriors wore mustaches, and even beards. The practice of keeping the face scrupulously bare, until recently so universally observed except by botanists and doctors, is comparatively modern.

Military Tactics Copied from the Chinese.

The military tactics and strategic arts of the Japanese were anciently copied from the Chinese, but were afterward modified as the nature of the physical features of their country and the institutions of feudalism required. No less than seven distinct systems were at different times in vogue; but that perfected by Takeda and Uyesugi, in the Ashikaga period, finally bore off the palm. These tactics continued to command the esteem and practice of the Japanese until the revolution wrought by the adoption of the European systems in the present century. The surface of the country being so largely mountainous, uneven, and covered with rice-swamps, cavalry were but little employed. A volley of arrows usually opened the battle, followed by a general engagement along the whole line.

Foot to Foot and Knee to Knee.

Single combats between commanders of hostile armies were of frequent occurrence. When they met on the field, their retainers, according to the strict etiquette of war, gave no aid to either, but encouraged them by shouts, as they called out each other's names and rushed to the combat. The battle slackened, while the leaders strove, the armies becoming spectators.

The victor cut off the head of his antagonist, and, holding it up, shouted his name and claimed the victory. The triumph or defeat of their leaders often decided the fate of the army. Vengeance against the victor was not permitted to be taken at the time, but must be sought

again, the two armies again joining battle. The fighting over, those who had slain distinguished personages, must exhibit their heads before their chiefs, who bestowed rewards upon them.

This practice still continues; and during the expedition in Formosa in 1874, the chief trophies were the heads of the Boutan cannibals, though the commander, General Saigo, attempted to abolish the custom. Whoever saved his chieftain's life on the field was honored with the place of highest rank in the clan. These customs had a tremendous influence in cultivating valor and a spirit of loyalty in the retainer toward the prince. The meanest soldier, if brave and faithful, might rise to the highest place of honor, rank, emolument, and influence. The bestowal of a reward, the investiture of a command, in military promotion, was ever an occasion of impressive ceremony.

The Samurai in Times of Peace.

Even in time of peace the "samurai," or military nobles, never appeared out of doors unarmed, invariably wearing their two swords in their girdle. The offensive weapons—spears long and short, the bows, arrows, and quiver, and battle-axes—were set on their butts on the porch or vestibule in front of the house. Within doors, in the "tokonoma," or recess, were ranged in glittering state the cuirass, helmet, greaves, gauntlets, and chain-mail. Over the sliding partitions, on racks, were the long halberds, which the women of the house were trained to use in case of attack during the absence of the men.

The gate of the house was permanently guarded by armed retainers, who occupied the porter's lodge beside it. Standing upright and ready were three long instruments, designed to entangle, throw down, and pin to the earth a quarrelsome applicant. Familiar faces passed unchallenged, but armed strangers were held at bay till their business was known. A grappling-iron, with barbed tongues turned in every direction, making a ball of hooks like an iron hedgehog, mounted on a pike-staff ten feet long, thrust into the Japanese loose clothing, sufficed to keep at a wholesome length any swash-buckler whose sword left its sheath too easily.

Peculiar Weapons of Offense and Defense.

Another spiked weapon, like a double rake, could be thrust between his legs and bring him to the earth. A third, shaped like a pitchfork, could hold him helpless under its wicket arch. Three heavy quarter staves were also ready to belabor the struggling wight who would not yield, while swords on the racks hung ready for the last resort, or when intruders came in numbers. On rows of pegs hung wooden tickets about three inches square, branded or inscribed with the names of the retainers and servants of the lord's house, which were handed to the keeper of the gate as they passed in or out.

The soldiers wore armor made of thin scales of iron, steel, hardened hide, lacquered paper, brass, or shark-skin, chain-mail, and shields. The helmet was of iron, very strong, and lined within by buckskin. Its flap of articulated iron rings drooped well around the shoulders. The visor was of thin lacquered iron, the nose and mouth pieces being removable. The eyes were partially protected by the projecting front-piece. A false mustache was supposed to make the upper lip of the warrior dreadful to behold.

Armor Worn by a Noble.

On the frontlet were the distinguishing symbols of the man, a pair of horns, a fish, an eagle, dragon, buckhorns, or flashing brass plates of various designs. Some of the helmets were very tall. Kato Kiyomasa's was three feet high. On the top was a hole, in which a pennant was thrust, or an ornament shaped like a pear inserted. The "pear-splitter" was the fatal stroke in combat and the prize-cut in fencing. Behind the corselet on the back was another socket, in which the clan-flag was inserted. The breastplate was heavy and tough; the arms, legs, abdomen, and thighs were protected by plates joined by woven chains.

Shields were often used; and for forlorn hopes or assaults, cavalrymen made use of a stuffed bag resembling a bolster, to receive a volley of arrows. Besides being missile-proof, it held the arrows as spoils. On the shoulders, hanging loosely, were unusually wide and heavy

brassarts, designed to deaden the force of the two-handed sword-stroke. Greaves and sandals completed the suit, which was laced and bound with iron clamps, and cords of buckskin and silk, and decorated with crests, gilt tassels, and glittering insignia. Suits of armor were black, white, purple, crimson, violet, green, golden or silver.

Details of Army Life.

The rations of the soldiers were rice, fish and vegetables. Instead of tents, huts of straw or boughs were easily erected to form a camp. The general's headquarters were enclosed by canvas, stretched on posts six feet high, on which his armorial bearings were wrought. The weapons were bows and arrows, spear, sword, and, rarely, battle-axes and bow-guns; for sieges, fire-arrows.

The general's scabbard was of tiger-skin. Supplies of this material were obtained from Korea, where the animal abounds. His baton was a small lacquered wand, with a cluster of strips of thick white paper dependent from the point. Flags, banners, and streamers were freely used; and a camp, castle, or moving army, in time of war, with its hundreds and thousands of flags, presented a gay and lively appearance. Drums, hard-wood clappers, and conch-shells sounded the reveille, the alarm, the onset, or the retreat.

How a Battle Was Fought.

Owing to the nature of the ground, consisting chiefly of mountains and valleys, or plains covered with rice-swamps intersected by narrow paths, infantry were usually depended upon. In besieging a castle, the intrenchments of the investing army consisted chiefly of a line of palisades or heavy planks, propped up from within by hinged supports, at an angle of forty-five degrees, behind which the besiegers fought or lived in camp life, while sentinels paced at the gates. Lookouts were posted on overlooking hills, in trees, or in towers erected for the purpose.

Sometimes huge kites able to sustain a man were flown, and a bird's-eye view of the interior of the enemy's castle thus obtained. Fire,

treachery, strategem, starvation, or shooting at long range having failed to compel surrender, an assault took place, in which the gates were smashed in or the walls scaled. Usually great loss resulted before the besiegers were driven off, or were victorious.

Rough surgery awaited the wounded. An arrow-barb was usually pulled out by a jerk of the pincers. A sabre-cut was sewed or bound together with tough paper, of which every soldier carried a supply. The wonderfully adhesive, absorptive, and healing power of the soft, tough, quickly wet, easily hardening, or easily kept pliable, Japanese paper made excellent plasters, bandages, tourniquets, cords, and towels. In the dressing of wounds, the native doctors to this day excel.

Origin of Hara-Kiri.

"Seppuku" (belly-cut) or "hara-kiri" also came into vogue about the time of the beginning of the domination of the military classes. At first, after a battle, the wounded fell on their swords, drove them through their mouth or breast, or cut their throats. Often a famous soldier, before dying, would flay and score his own face beyond recognition so that his enemies might not glory over him.

This grew into a principle of honor; and frequently the unscathed survivors, defeated, and feeling the cause hopeless, or retainers whose master was slain, committed suicide. Hence arose, in the Ashikaga period, the fashion of wearing two swords; one of which, the longer, was for enemies; the other, shorter, for the wearer's own body. The practice of hara-kiri as a judicial sentence and punishment did not come into vogue until in the time of the Tokugawas.

The Use of the Ko-Katana.

Thrust into a tiny scabbard at the side of the dirk, or small sword, was a pair of chopsticks to eat with in camp. Anciently these were skewers, to thrust through the top-knot of a decapitated enemy, that the head might be easily carried. Besides, or in lieu of them, was a small miniature sword, "ko-katana" (little sword), or long, narrow knife. Although this was put to various trivial uses, such as those for which we employ a penknife, yet its primary purpose was that of the

card of the owner. Each sword was adorned with some symbol or crest, which served to mark the clan, family, or person of the owner.

The Satsuma men wore swords with red-lacquered scabbards. Later, the Tokugawa vassals, who fought in the battle of Sekigahara, were called "white hilts," because they wore swords of extraordinary length, with white hilts. The bat, the falcon, the dragon, lion, tiger, owl, and hawk were among the most common designs wrought in gold, lacquer, carving, or alloy on the hilts, handles, or scabbard; and on the ko-katana was engraved the name of the owner.

The Vendetta.

Feudalism was the mother of brawls innumerable, and feuds between families and clans continually existed. The wife whose husband was slain by the grudge-bearer brought up her sons religiously to avenge their father's death. The vendetta was unhindered by law and applauded by society. The moment of revenge selected was usually that of the victim's proudest triumph. After promotion to office, succession to patrimony, or at his marriage ceremony, the sword of the avenger did its bloody work.

Many a bride found herself a widow on her wedding-night. Many a child became an orphan in the hour of the father's acme of honor. When the murder was secret, at night, or on the wayside, the head was cut off, and the avenger, plucking out his ko-katana, thrust it in the ear of the victim, and let it lie on the public highway, or sent it to be deposited before the gate of the house. The ko-katana, with the name engraved on it, told the whole story.

Whenever the lord of a clan wished his rival or enemy out of the way, he gave the order of Herodias to her daughter to his faithful retainers, and usually the head in due time was brought before him, as was John's, on a charger or ceremonial stand.

Etiquette of the Sword.

The most minutely detailed etiquette presided over the sword, the badge of the gentleman. The visitor whose means allowed him to be accompanied by a servant always left his long sword in his charge when

entering a friend's house; the salutation being repeated bowing of the forehead to the floor while on the hands and knees, the breath being sucked in at the same time with an impressive sound. The degree of obeisance was accurately graded according to rank. If alone, the visitor laid his sword on the floor of the vestibule. The host's servants, if so instructed by their master, then, with a silk napkin in hand, removed it inside and placed it, with all honor, on the sword-rack.

At meetings between those less familiar, the sheathed weapon was withdrawn from the girdle and laid on the floor to the right, an indication of friendship, since it could not be drawn easily. Under suspicious circumstances, it was laid to the left, so as to be at hand. On short visits, the dirk was retained in the girdle; on festal occasions, or prolonged visits, it was withdrawn. To clash the sheath of one's sword against that of another was a breach of etiquette that often resulted in instantaneous and bloody reprisal.

To turn the sheath in the belt as if about to draw was tantamount to a challenge. To lay one's weapon on the floor of a room, and kick the guard toward a person, was an insult that generally resulted in a combat to the death. Even to touch another's weapon in any way was a grave offense. No weapon was ever exhibited naked for any purpose, unless the wearer first profusely begged pardon of those present. A wish to see a sword was seldom made, unless the blade was a rare one. The owner then held the back of the sword to the spectator, with the edge toward himself, and the hilt, wrapped in the little silk napkin which gentlemen always carry in their pocketbooks, or a piece of white paper, to the left.

The blade was then withdrawn from the scabbard, and admired inch by inch, but never entirely withdrawn unless the owner pressed his guest to do so, when, with much apology, the sword was entirely withdrawn and held away from those present. Many a gentleman took a pride in making collections of swords, and the men of every samurai family wore weapons that were heirlooms, often centuries old. Women wore short swords when traveling, and the palace ladies in time of fires armed themselves.

The Land of Many Blades.

In no country has the sword been made an object of such honor as in Japan. It is at once a divine symbol, a knightly weapon, and a certificate of noble birth. "The girded sword is the soul of the samurai." It is "the precious possession of lord and vassal from times older than the divine period." Japan is "the land of many blades." The gods wore and wielded two-edged swords. From the tail of the dragon was born the sword which the Sun-goddess gave to the first emperor of Japan. By the sword of the clustering clouds of heaven Yamato-Dake subdued the East. By the sword the mortal heroes of Japan won their fame.

"There's naught 'twixt heaven and earth that man need fear, who carries at his belt this single blade." "One's fate is in the hands of Heaven, but a skillful fighter does not meet with death." "In the last days, one's sword becomes the wealth of one's posterity." These are the mottoes graven on Japanese swords.

Forging a Sword.

Names of famous swords belonging to the Taira, Minamoto, and other families are, "Little Crow," "Beard-cutter," "Knee-divider." The two latter, when tried on sentenced criminals, after severing the heads from the body, cut the beard, and divided the knee respectively. The forging of a sword occupied the smith sixty days, and was often a religious ceremony. No artisans were held in greater honor than the sword-makers, and some of them even rose to honorary rank.

The names of Munechicka, Masamune, Yoshimitsu, and Muramasa, a few out of many noted smiths, are familiar words in the mouths of even Japanese children. The names, or marks and dates, of famous makers were always attached to their blades, and from the ninth to the fifteenth century were sure to be genuine. In later times, the practice of counterfeiting the marks of well-known makers came into vogue. Certain swords considered of good omen in one family were deemed unlucky in others. The ordinary length of a sword was a fraction over two feet for the long and one foot for the short sword. All lengths

were, however, made use of, and some of the old warriors on horseback wore swords over six feet long.

Elaborate Workmanship.

The Japanese sword-blade averages about an inch in width, about seven-eighths of which is a backing of iron, to which a face of steel is forged along its entire length. The back, about one-fourth of an inch thick, bevels out very slightly to near the center of the blade, which then narrows to a razor edge. The steel and the forging line are easily distinguished by a cloudiness on the mirror-like polish of the metal. An inch and a quarter from the point, the width of the blade having been decreased one-fourth, the edge is ground off to a semi-parabola, meeting the back, which is prolonged, untouched; the curve of the whole blade, from a straight line, being less than a quarter of an inch.

The guard is often a piece of elaborate workmanship in metal, representing a landscape, water-scene, or various emblems. The hilt is formed by covering the prolonged iron handle by shark-skin and wrapping this with twisted silk. The ferrule, washers, and cleats are usually inlaid, embossed, or chased in gold, silver, or alloy. The rivets in the center of the handle are concealed by designs, often of solid gold, such as the lion, dragon, cock, etc.

The Emblem of Social Rank.

In full dress, the color of the scabbard was black, with a tinge of green or red in it, and the bindings of the hilt of blue silk. The taste of the wearer was often displayed in the color, size or method of wearing his sword, gay or proud fellows affecting startling colors or extravagant length. Riven through ornamental ferrules at the side of the scabbards were long, flat cords of woven silk of various tints, which were used to tie up the flowing sleeves, preparatory to fighting. Every part of a sword was richly inlaid, or expensively finished. Daimios often spent extravagant sums on a single blade, and small fortunes on a collection.

A samuraî, however poor, would have a blade of sure temper and rich mountings, deeming it honorable to suffer for food, that he might

have a worthy emblem of his social rank. A description of the various styles of blade and scabbard, lacquer, ornaments, and the rich vocabulary of terms minutely detailing each piece entering into the construction of a Japanese sword, the etiquette to be observed, the names, mottoes and legends relating to them, would fill a large volume closely printed. A considerable portion of native literature is devoted to this one subject.

Japanese Bow and Arrows.

The bow and arrows were the chief weapons for siege and long-range operations. A Japanese bow has a peculiar shape. It was made of well-selected oak ("kashi"), incased on both sides with a semi-cylinder of split bamboo toughened by fire. The three pieces composing the bow were then bound firmly into one piece by thin withes of rattan, making an excellent combination of lightness, strength, and elasticity. The string was of hemp. Arrows were of various kinds and lengths, according to the arms of the arches. The average length of the war-arrow was three feet.

The "turnip-head," "frog-crotch," "willow-leaf," "armor-piercer," "bowel-raker," were a few of the various names for arrows. The "turnip-top," so named from its shape, made a singing noise as it flew. The "frog-crotch," shaped like a pitchfork, or the hind legs of a leaping frog, with edged blades, was used to cut down flags or helmet lacings. The "willow-leaf" was a two-edged, unbarbed head, shaped like the leaf of a willow. The "bowel-raker" was of a frightful shape, well worthy of the name; and the victim whose diaphragm it penetrated was not likely to stir about afterward. The "armor-piercer" was a plain bolt-head, with nearly blunt point, well calculated to punch through a breast-plate.

Barbs of steel were of various shape; sometimes very heavy, and often handsomely open-worked. The shaft was of cane bamboo, with string-piece of bone or horn, whipped on with silk. Quivers were of leather, water-proof paper, or thin lacquered wood, and often splendidly adorned. Gold-inlaid weapons were common among the rich soldiers, and the outfit of an officer often cost many hundreds of dollars.

Old Tools of War as Symbols of Peace.

Not a few of these old tools of war have lost their significance, and have become household adornments, objects of art, or symbols of peace. Such especially are the emblems of the carpenters' guild, which consist of the half-feathered "turnip-head" arrow, wreathed with leaves of the same succulent, and the "frog-crotch," inserted in the mouth of a dragon, crossed upon the ancient mallet of the craft. These adorn temples or houses, or are carried in the local parades or festivals.

As Buddhism had become the professed religion of the entire nation, the vast majority of the military men were Buddhists. Each had his patron or deity. The soldier went into battle with an image of Buddha sewed in his helmet, and after victory ascribed glory to his divine deliverer. Many temples in Japan are the standing monuments of triumph in battle, or vows performed. Many of the noted captains, notably Kato, inscribed their banners with texts from the classics or the prayers, "Namu Amida Butsu," or "Namu mio ho," etc., according to their sect.

Amulets and Charms.

Amulets and charms were worn almost without exception, and many a tale is told of arrows turned aside, or swords broken, that struck on a sacred image, picture, or text. Before entering a battle, or performing a special feat of skill or valor, the hero uttered the warrior's prayer, "Namu Hachiman Dai-bosatsu" ("Glory to Hachiman, the incarnation of Great Buddha"). Though brave heroes must, like ordinary men, pass through purgatory, yet death on the batle-field was reckoned highly meritorious, and the happiness of the warrior's soul in the next world was secured by the prayers of his wife and children.

CHAPTER III.

LIFE IN THE MIDDLE AGES

Victories of Peace—The Primal Japanese Type—Religious Institutions—Images, Idols and Bells—Influence of the Priests—Mediaeval Science, Art and Literature—Provincial Barriers—Medicine and Surgery—Court Life—Evolution of the Language.

HISTORY, as usually written, gives the impression that the normal condition of mankind is that of war. Japanese students who take up the history of England to read, lay it down convinced that the English people are a blood-loving race that are perpetually fighting. They contrast their own peaceful country with the countries of Europe, to the detriment of the latter. They turn most gladly from the monotonous story of battle, murder, and sieges, to Buckle, Guizot, or Lecky, that they may learn of the victories no less renowned than those of war which mark as mile-stones the progress of the race.

A Period of Peace.

Permanent, universal peace was unknown in Japan until, by the genius of Iyeyasu in the sixteenth century, two centuries and a half of this blessing were secured. Nevertheless, in the eight centuries included between the eighth and the sixteenth of our era were many, and often lengthened, intervals of peace.

In many sequestered places the sandal of the warrior and the hoof of the war-horse never printed the soil. Peace in the palace, in the city, in the village, allowed the development of manners, arts, manufactures, and agriculture. In this period were developed the characteristic growths of the Japanese intellect, imagination, social economy, and manual skill that have made the hermit nation unique in the earth and Japanese art productions the wonder of the world.

The Chinese Influence.

The introduction of continental or Chinese civilization into Japan was not a simple act of adoption. It was rather a work of selection and assimilation. As in this twentieth century, the Japanese is no blind copyist, he improves on what he borrows. Although the traveler from China entering Japan can see in a moment whence the Japanese have borrowed their civilization, and though he may believe the Japanese to be an inferior type to the Chinese, he will acknowledge that the Japanese have improved upon their borrowed elements fully as much as the French have improved upon those of Roman civilization.

Many reflecting foreigners in Japan have asked the question why the Japanese are so unlike the Chinese, and why their art, literature, laws, customs, dress, workmanship, all bear a stamp peculiar to themselves, though they received so much from them. The reason is to be found in the strength and persistence of the primal Japanese type of character, as influenced by nature, enabling it to resist serious alteration and radical change. The greatest conquests made by any of the imparted elements of continental civilization was that of Buddhism, which became within ten centuries the universally popular religion.

Japanese Buddhism.

Yet even its conquests were but partial. Its triumph was secured only by its adulteration. Japanese Buddhism is a distinct product among the many forms of that Asiatic religion. Buddhism secured life and growth on Japanese soil only by being Japanized, by being grafted on the original stock of ideas in the Japanese mind. Thus, in order to popularize the Indian religion, the ancient native heroes and the local gods were all included within the Buddhist pantheon, and declared to be the incarnations of Buddha in his various forms. A class of deities exists in Japan who are worshiped by the Buddhists under the general name of "gongen." They are all deified Japanese heroes, warriors, or famous men. Furthermore, many of the old rites and ceremonies of Shinto were altered and made use of by the "bonzes," or priests.

It may be doubted whether Buddhism could have ever been popular in Japan, had it not become thoroughly Japanized. Some of the first fruits of the success of the new religion was the erection of temples, pagodas, idols, wayside shrines, monasteries, and nunneries; the adoption of the practice of cremation, until then unknown; and the cessation of the slaughter of animals for food. The largest and richest of the ecclesiastical structures were in or near Kioto. The priests acted as teachers, advisers, counselors, and scribes, besides officiating at the altars, shriving the sick and attending the sepulture of the dead.

Mediaeval Monasteries.

Among the orders and sects which grew and multiplied were many similar to those in papal Europe—mendicants, sellers of indulgences, builders of shrines and images, and openers of mountain paths. The monasteries became asylums for the distressed, afflicted and persecuted. In them the defeated soldier, the penniless and dissatisfied, the refugee from the vendetta, could find inviolate shelter. To them the warrior after war, the prince and the minister leaving the palace, the honors and pomp of the world, could retire to spend the remnant of their days in prayer, worship, and the offices of piety. Often the murderer, struck with remorse, or the soldier before his bloody victim, would resolve to turn monk.

Not rarely did men crossed in love, or the offspring of the concubine displaced by the birth of the legitimate son, or the grief-stricken father, devote himself to the priestly life. In general, however, the ranks of the bonzes were recruited from orphans or piously inclined youth, or from overstocked families. To the nunneries, the fertile soil of bereavement, remorse, unrequited love, widowhood furnished the greater number of sincere and devout nuns. In many cases, the deliberate choice of wealthy ladies, or the necessity of escaping an uncongenial marriage planned by relatives, undesirable attentions, or the lusts of rude men in unsettled times, gave many an inmate to the convents.

Class Who Entered Religious Institutions.

In general, however, natural indolence, a desire to avoid the round of drudgery at the well, the hoe, or in the kitchen, or as nurse, sent the majority of applicants to knock at the convent doors. Occasionally a noble lady was won to recluse life from the very apartments of the emperor, or his ministers, by the eloquence of a bonze who was more zealous than loyal. In a few of the convents, only ladies of wealth could enter. The monk and nun, in Japanese as in European history, romance, and drama, and art, are staple characters.

The rules of these monastic institutions forbade the eating of fish or flesh, the drinking of "sake," the wearing of the hair or of fine clothes, indulgence in certain sensuous pleasures, or the reading of certain books. Fastings, vigils, reflection, continual prayer by book, bell, candle, and beads, were enjoined. Pious pilgrimages were undertaken. The erection of a shrine, image belfry, or lantern by begging contributions was a frequent and meritorious enterprise. There stand today thousands of these monuments of the piety, zeal, and industry of the mediaeval monks and nuns. Those at Nara and Kamakura are the most famous.

A Celebrated Image.

The "Kamakura Dai Butsu" ("Great Buddha") has been frequently described. It is a mass of copper 44 feet high, and a work of high art. The image at Nara was first erected in the eighth century, destroyed during the civil wars, and recast about seven hundred years ago. Its total height is 53½ feet; its face is 16 feet long and 9½ feet wide. The width of its shoulders is 28 7-10 feet.

Nine hundred and sixty-six curls adorn its head, around which is a halo 78 feet in diameter, on which are sixteen images, each 8 feet long. The casting of the idol is said to have been tried seven times before it was successfully accomplished, and 3,000 tons of charcoal were used in the operation. The metal, said to weigh 450 tons, is a bronze composed of gold (500 pounds), mercury (1,954 pounds), tin (16,827 pounds), and

copper (986,080 pounds). Many millions of tons of copper were mined and melted to make these idols.

Japanese Temple Bells.

Equally renowned were the great temple-bells of Kioto, and of Miidera, and various other monasteries. Some of these were ten feet high, and adorned with sacred texts from the Buddhist Scriptures, and images of heavenly beings, or Buddha on the sacred lotus in Nirvana, in high relief. As usual, the nimbus, or halo, surrounds his head.

The bell was struck on a raised round spot, by a hammer of wood—a small tree-trunk swung loosely on two ropes. After impact, the bell-man held the beam on its rebound, until the quivering monotone began to die away. Few sounds are more solemnly sweet than the mellow music of a Japanese temple-bell. On a still night, a circumference of twenty miles was flooded by the melody of the great bell of Zozoji. The people learned to love their temple-bell as a dear friend, as its note changed with the years and moods of life.

The Casting of a Bell.

The casting of a bell was ever the occasion of rejoicing and public festival. When the chief priest of the city announced that one was to be made, the people brought contributions in money, or offerings of bronze gold, pure tin, or copper vessels. Ladies gave with their own hands the mirrors which had been the envy of lovers, young girls laid their silver hair-pins and bijouterie on the heap. When metal enough and in due proportion had been amassed, crucibles were made, earth-furnaces dug, the moulds fashioned, and huge bellows, worked by standing men at each end, like a see-saw, were mounted; and after due prayers and consultation, the auspicious day was appointed.

The place selected was usually on a hill or commanding place. The people, in their gayest dress, assembled in picnic parties, and with song and dance and feast waited while the workmen, in festal uniform, toiled, and the priests, in canonical robes, watched. The fires were lighted, the bellows oscillated, the blast roared, and the crucibles were brought

to the proper heat and the contents to fiery fluidity, the joy of the crowd increasing as each stage in the process is announced. When the molten flood was finally poured into the mould, the excitement of the spectators reached a height of uncontrollable enthusiasm.

Religious Observations.

Another pecuniary harvest was reaped by the priests before the crowds dispersed, by the sale of stamped kerchiefs or paper containing a holy text, or certifying to the presence of the purchaser at the ceremony, and the blessing of the gods upon him therefor. Such a token became an heirloom; and the child who ever afterward heard the solemn boom of the bell at matin or evening was constrained, by filial as well as holy motives, to obey and reverence its admonitory call. The belfry was usually a separate building apart from the temple, with elaborate cornices and roof.

In addition to the offices of religion, many of the priests were useful men, and real civilizers. They were not all lazy monks or idle bonzes. By the Buddhist priests many streams were spanned with bridges, paths and roads made, shade or fruit trees planted, ponds and ditches for purposes of irrigation dug, aqueducts built, unwholesome localities drained, and mountain passes discovered or explored. Many were the school-masters, and, as learned men, were consulted on subjects beyond the ken of their parishioners. Some of them, having a knowledge of medicine, acted as physicians.

Japan Owes Much to the Priests.

The sciences and arts in Japan all owe much to the bonzes who from Korea personally introduced many useful appliances or articles of food. Several edible vegetables are still named after the priests, who first taught their use. The exact sciences, astronomy and mathematics, as well as the humanities, owe much of their cultivation and development to clerical scholars. In the monasteries, the brethren exercised their varied gifts in preaching, study, caligraphy, carving, sculpture, or on objects of ecclesiastical art.

The monuments by which the memory of many a saintly bonze is still kept green exists today as treasures on the altars, or in the temple or its shady precincts, in winged words or material substances. A copy of the Buddhist Scriptures, a sacred classic, in roll or bound volume, might occupy a holy penman before his brush and inkstone for years. The manuscript texts often seen in the hall of worship on silky paper bound in damask, in Japanese monasteries, could not be improved in elegance and accuracy by the printer's art. The transcription of a sutra on silk, made to adorn the wall of a shrine, in many cases performed its mission for centuries.

The Many Accomplishments of the Bonzes.

Another monk excelled in improvisation of sacred stanzas, another painted the pictures and scrolls by which the multitude were taught by the priest, with his pointer in hand, the mysteries of theology, the symbols of worship, the terrors of the graded hells and purgatories, and the felicities of Nirvana. Another of the fraternity, with cunning hand, compelled the wonder of his brethren by his skill in carving.

He could, from a log which today had its bark on, bring forth in time the serene countenance of Buddha, the ravishing beauty of Kuanon, the Goddess of Mercy, the scowling terrors of the God of War, the frightful visage of Fudo, or the hideous face of the Lord of Hell. Another was famous for molding the clay for the carver, the sculptor, or the bronze-smith. Many articles of altar furniture, even to the incense-sticks and flowers, were often made entirely by clerical hands.

The Industrial Arts in the Middle Ages.

During the Middle Ages, the arts of pottery, lacquering, gilding, bronze-casting, engraving and chasing, chisel and punch work, sword-making, goldsmith's work, were brought to a perfection never since excelled, if indeed it has been equaled. In enameled and inlaid metal work the hand of the Japanese artisan has undoubtedly lost its cunning. Native archaeologists assert that a good catalogue of "lost arts" may

be made out, notably those of the composition and application of violet lacquer, and the ancient Cloisonne enamel.

The delicacy of tact, freedom of movement, and perfection of finish visible on Japanese work, are the result of long hereditary application and concentrated skill. Hidden away in sequestered villages, or occupying the same workshop in cities for centuries, generations of craftsmen wrought upon one class of objects, until from the workman's hand is born the offspring of a long pedigree of thought and dexterity.

The Discovery of Lacquer Ware.

Japanese antiquarians fix the date of the discovery of lacquer ware variously at A. D. 724 and 900. Echizen, from the first, has been noted for the abundance and luxuriant yield of lacquer-trees, and the skill of her workmen in extracting the milk-white virgin sap, which the action of the air turns to black, and which by pigments is changed to various colors. In the thirteenth century the art of gold-lacquering attained the zenith of perfection. Various schools of lacquer art were founded, one excelling in landscape, another in marine scenery, or the delineation, in gold and silver powder and varnish, of birds, insects, and flowers. The masters who flourished during this period still rule the pencil of the modern artist.

Kioto, as the civil and military as well as ecclesiastical capital of the empire, was the center and standard of manners, language, and etiquette, of art, literature, religion, and government. No people are more courtly and polished in their manners than the Japanese. The direct influences of court life have made themselves perceptibly felt on the inhabitants of the city.

Kioto, the Holy City.

From this center radiated the multifarious influences which have molded the character of the nation. The country priest came as pilgrim to the capital as to the Holy City, to strengthen his faith and cheer his soul amidst its aspirations, to see the primates and magnates of his sect, to pray at the famous shrines, to study in the largest monasteries,

under the greatest lights and holiest teachers. Returning to his parish, new sanctity was shed from his rustling robes. His brethren welcomed him with awe, and the people thronged to see and venerate the holy man who had drunk at the very fountains of the faith. The temple coffers grew heavy with the weight of offerings because of him.

The sons of the nobleman in distant provinces were sent to Kioto to be educated, to learn reading and writing from the priests, the perfection of the art of war in the army, the etiquette of palace life as pages to, or as guests of, the court nobles. The artisan or rich merchant from Oshiu or Kadzusa, who had made the journey to Kioto, astonished his wondering listeners at home with tales of the splendor of the processions of the mikado, the wealth of the temples, the number of the pagodas, the richness of the silk robes of the court nobles, and the wonders which the Kioto potters and vase-makers, sword-forgers, goldsmiths, lacquerers, crystal-cutters, and bronze-moulders, daily exposed in their shops, in profusion.

The Seat of Learning.

In Kioto also dwelt the poets, novelists, historians, grammarians, writers, and the purists, whose dicta were laws. By them were written the great bulk of the classic literature, embracing poetry, drama, fiction, history, philosophy, etiquette, and the numerous diaries and works on travel in China, Korea, and the remote provinces of the country, and the books called "Kagami" ("mirrors") of the times, now so interesting to the antiquarian student.

Occasionally nobles or court ladies would leave the luxury of the city, and take up their abode in a castle, tower, pagoda, or temple room, or on some mountain overlooking Lake Biwa, the sea, or the Yodo River, or the plains of Yamato; and amidst its inspiring scenery, with tiny table, ink-stone and brush, pen some prose epic or romance, that has since become an immortal classic.

Almost every mansion of the nobles had its "looking-room," or "chamber of inspiring view," whence to gaze upon the landscape or marine scenery. Rooms set apart for the aesthetic pleasure still form

a feature of the house of nearly every modern native of means. On many a coigne of vantage may be seen also the summer-houses or rustic booths, where gather pleasure parties or picnics.

Provincial Customs.

In the civil administration of the empire, the chief work was to dispense justice, punish offenders, collect taxes, and settle disputes. After the rude surveys of those days the boundaries of provinces and departments were marked by inscribed posts of wood or stone. Before the days of writing, the same end was secured by charcoal buried in the earth at certain points, the durability of which insured the mark against decay.

The peasants, after the rice-harvest was over, brought their tribute, or taxes, with joyful ceremony, to the government granaries in straw bags, packed on horses gaily decorated with scarlet housings, and jingling with clusters of small bells. A relic of this custom is seen in the bunches of bells suspended by red cotton stuff from the rear of the pack-saddle, which dangle musically from the ungainly haunches of the native sumpters.

Barriers Between Provinces.

From earliest times there existed "seki" (guard gates or barriers) between the various provinces at mountain passes or strategic points. As feudalism developed, they grew more numerous. A fence of palisades, stretched across the road, guarded the path through which, according to time, or orders of the keepers, none could pass with arms, or without the pass-word or pass-port.

Anciently they were erected at the Hakone and other mountain passes, to keep up the distinction between the Ainos and the pure Japanese. The possession of these barriers was ever an important object of rival military commanders, and the shifts, devices, and extraordinary artifices resorted to by refugees, disguised worthies, and forbidden characters, furnish the historian, the novelist, and dramatist with some of their most thrilling episodes.

An Interesting Anecdote.

It is related of Yoshitsune, after he had incurred the wrath of Yoritomo, that, with Benkei, his servant, he arrived at a guard gate kept by some Genji soldiers, who would have been sure to arrest him had they discovered his august personality. Disguised as wandering priests of the Buddhist sect Yama-bushi, they approached the gate, and were challenged by the sentinel, who, like most of his class at that time, was ignorant of writing.

Benkei, with great dignity, drawing from his bosom a roll of blank paper, began, after touching it reverently to his forehead, to extemporize and read aloud in choicest and most pious language a commission from the high-priest at the temple of Hokoji, in Kioto, in which stood the great image of Buddha, authorizing him to collect money to cast a colossal bell for the temple.

At the first mention of the name of his reverence, the renowned priest, so talismanic in all the empire, the soldier dropped down on his knees with face to the ground, and listened with reverent awe, unaware that the paper was as blank as the reader's tongue was glib. To further lull suspicion, Benkei apologized for the rude conduct of his servant-boy, who stood during the reading, because he was only a boor just out of the rice-fields; and, giving him a kick, bid him get down on his marrow-bones, and not stand up in the presence of a gentleman and a soldier. The ruse was complete. The illustrious youth and his servant passed on.

Medical and Surgical Science.

Medical science made considerable progress in the course of centuries. The materia medica, system, practice, and literature of the healing art were borrowed from China; but upon these, as upon most other matters, the Japanese improved. Acupuncture, or the introduction of needles into living tissues for remedial purposes, was much improved by the Japanese. The puncturing needles, as fine as a hair, were made of gold, silver, or tempered steel, by experts.

The bones, large nerves, or blood vessels were carefully avoided in

the process, which enjoyed great repute in cases of a peculiar violent colic, to which the natives are subject, and which sometimes becomes epidemic. On the theory that this malady was caused by wind, holes were made in the stomach or abdomen, to the mystic number of nine—corresponding to the nine apertures of the body.

Popular Remedies.

"Moxa" (Japanese, "mokusa;" "mo," fire; from "moyeru," to burn, and "kusa," herb, grass), or the burning of a small cone of cottony fibers of the artemisia, on the back or feet, was practiced as early as the eleventh century, reference being made to it in a poem written at that time. A number of ancient stanzas and puns, relating to Mount Ibuki, on the sides of which the mugwort grows luxuriantly, are still extant. To this day it is an exception to find the backs of the common people unscarred with the spots left by the moxa.

The use of mercury in corrosive sublimate was very anciently known. The "do-sha" powder, however, which was said to cure various diseases, and to relax the rigid limbs of a corpse, was manufactured and sold only by the bonzes of the Shin Gon sect. It is, and always was, a pious fraud, being nothing but unefficacious quartz sand, mixed with grains of mica and pyrites.

Wine, Women and Song.

Of the mediaeval sports and pastimes within and without of doors, the former were preferred by the weak and effeminate, the latter by the hale and strong. Banquets and carousals in the palace were frequent. The brewing of sake from rice was begun, according to record, in the third century, and the office of chief butler even earlier. The native sauce, "sho-yu," made of fermented wheat and beans, with salt and vinegar, which the cunning purveyors of Europe use as the basis of their high-priced piquant sauces, was made and used as early as the twelfth century.

The name of this saline oil ("sho," salt; "yu," oil) appears as "soy" in our dictionaries, it being one of the three words (soy, bonze, moxa) which we have borrowed from the Japanese. At the feasts, besides the

wine and delicacies to please the palate, music, song, and dance made the feast of reason and the flow of soul, while witty and beautiful women lent grace and added pleasure to the festivities.

Court Life.

In long, trailing robes of white, crimson, or highly figured silk, with hair flowing in luxuriance over the shoulders, and bound gracefully in one long tress which fell below the waist behind, maids and ladies of the palace rained glances and influence upon the favored ones. They fired the heart of admirers by the bewitching beauty of a well-formed hand, foot, neck, face, or form decked with whatever added charms cosmetics could bestow upon them. Japanese ladies have ever been noted for neatness, good taste, and, on proper occasions, splendor and luxuriance of dress.

With fan, and waving long sleeve, the language of secret but outwardly decorous passion found ample expression. Kisses, the pressure of the hand, and other symbols of love as expressed in other lands, were then, as now, unknown. In humble life, also, in all their social pleasures the two sexes met together to participate in the same delights, with far greater freedom than is known in Asiastic countries. As, however, wives or concubines have not always the attractions of youth, beauty, wit, maidenly freshness, or skill at the "koto," the "geisha," or singing-girl, then as now, served the sake, danced, sung, and played, and was rewarded by the gold or gifts of the host, or perhaps became his Hagar.

Diversions Peculiar to the Palace.

The statement that the empress was attended only by "vestals who had never beheld a man" is disproved by a short study of the volumes of poetry, amorous and otherwise, written by them, and still quoted as classic. As to the standard of virtue in those days, I believe it was certainly not below that of the later Roman empire, and I am inclined to believe it was far above it.

In the court at Kioto, besides games of skill or chance in the house, were foot-ball, cock-fighting, falconry, horsemanship, and archery. The

robust games of the military classes were hunting the boar, deer, bear, and smaller game. Hunting by falcons, which had been introduced by some Korean ambassadors in the time of Jingu Kogo, was almost as extensively practiced as in Europe, almost every feudal lord having his perch of falcons.

Fishing by cormorants, though a useful branch of the fisherman's industry, was also indulged in for pleasure. The severe exercise of hunting for sport, however, never became as absorbing and popular in Japan as in Europe, being confined more to the profession of huntsman, and the seeker for daily food.

Favorite Forms of Amusement.

The court ladies shaved off their eyebrows, and pointed two sable bars or spots on the forehead resembling false eyebrows. In addition to the gentle tasks of needle-work and embroidery, they passed the time in games of chess, checkers, painted shells, and a diversion peculiar to the palace, in which the skill of the player depended on her sensitiveness in appreciating perfumes, the necessary articles being vials of fragrant extracts. Their pets were the peculiar little dogs called "chin."

They stained their teeth black, like the women of the lower classes; an example which the nobles of the sterner sex followed, as they grew more and more effeminate. One of the staple diversions of both sexes at the court was to write poetry, and recite it to each other. The emperor frequently honored a lady or noble by giving the chosen one a subject upon which to compose a poem. A happy thought, skilfully wrought stanza, a felicitous grace of pantomime, often made the poetess a maid of honor, a concubine, or even an empress, and the poet a minister or councilor.

The Origin of a Classic.

Another favorite means of amusement was to write and read or tell stories—the Scheherezade of these being a beautiful lady, who often composed her own stories. The following instance is abbreviated from the Onna Dai Gaku ("Woman's Great Study"): Ise no Taiyu was a daughter of Sukeichika, the mikado's minister of festivals, and a highly

accomplished lady. None among the ladies of the court could equal her. One day a branch of luxuriant cherry-blossoms was brought from Nara. The emperor gave it to her, and asked her to extemporize a verse. She did so, and the courtiers were all astonished at the beauty and delicate sentiment of the verse.

Sei Shonagon was the daughter of Kiyowara no Motosuke. She was one of the imperial concubines. She was well read in Japanese and Chinese literature, and composed poetry almost from infancy, having a wonderful facility of improvization. One day, after a fall of snow, she looked out from the southern door of the palace.

The emperor, having passed round the wine-cup to his lords and ladies at the usual morning assembly of the courtiers and maids of honor, said, "How is the snow of Kuraho?" No one else understood the meaning, but Sei Shonagon instantly stepped forward and drew up the curtains, revealing the mountains decked in fresh-fallen snow. The emperor was delighted, and bestowed upon her a prize. Sei Shonagon had understood his allusion to the line in an ancient poem which ran thus:

"The snow of Kuraho is seen by raising the curtains."

Lacking in Artistic Taste.

Once when a certain kuge was traveling in a province, he came, on a moonlight night, to a poor village in which the cottage had fallen into picturesque decay, the roofs of which gleamed like silver. The sight of the glorified huts inspired him with such a fine frenzy that he sat up all night gazing rapturously on the scene, anon composing stanzas.

He was so delighted that he planned to remain in the place several days. The next morning, however, the villagers, hearing of the presence of so illustrious a guest among them, began busily to repair the ruin, and to rethatch the roofs. The kuge, seeing all his poetic visions dispelled by this vandal industry, ordered his bullock-car, and was off, disgusted.

The Spoken and Written Language.

During the first centuries of writing in Japan, the spoken and the written language were identical. With the study of the Chinese literature, and the composition of works by the native literati almost exclusively in that language, grew up differences between the colloquial and literary idiom and terminology. The infusion of a large number of Chinese words into the common speech steadily increased; while the learned affected a pedantic style of conversation, so interlarded with Chinese names, words, and expressions, that to the vulgar their discourse was almost unintelligible.

Buddhism also made Chinese the vehicle of its teachings, and the people everywhere became familiar, not only with its technical terms, but with its stock phrases and forms of thought. To this day the Buddhist, or sham-religious, way of talking is almost a complete tongue in itself, and a good dictionary always gives a Buddhistic meaning of a word separately.

Familiar Expressions.

In reading or hearing Japanese, the English-speaking resident continually stumbles on his own religious cant and orthodox expressions, which he believes to be peculiar to his own atmosphere, that have a meaning entirely different from the natural sense; "this vale of tears," "this evil world," "gone to his reward," "dust and ashes," "worm of the dust," and many phrases which so many think are exclusively Christian or evangelical, are echoed in Japanese.

So much is this true, that the missionaries, in translating religious books, are at first delighted to find exact equivalents for many expressions desirable in technical theology, or for what may fairly be termed pious slang, but will not use them, for fear of misleading the reader, or rather of failing to lead him out of his old notions into the new faith which it is desired to teach.

So general have the use and affectation of Chinese become, that in many instances the pedantic Chinese name or word has been retained in the mouths of the people, while the more beautiful native term is

almost lost. In general, however, only the men were devoted to Chinese, while the cultivation of the Japanese language was left to the women. This task the women nobly discharged, fully maintaining the credit of the native literature.

Most of the Poetry the Work of Women.

Mr. W. G. Aston says, "I believe no parallel is to be found in the history of European letters, to the remarkable fact that a very large proportion of the best writings of the best age of Japanese literature was the work of women." The "Genji Monogatari" is the acknowledged standard of the language for the period to which it belongs, and the parent of the Japanese novel. This, with the classics, "Ise Monogatari" and "Makura Zoshi," and much of the poetry of the time, are the works of women. It is to be noted that the borrowed Chinese words were taken entirely from the written, not the colloquial, language of China, the latter having never been spoken by the Japanese, except by a few interpreters at Nagasaki. The Japanese literary style is more concise, and retains archaic forms.

As in the English speech, the child of the wedded Saxon and Norman, the words which express the wants, feelings and concerns of every-day life—all that is deepest in the human heart—are for the most part native; the technical, scientific, and abstract terms are foreign. Hence, if we would find the fountains of the musical and beautiful language of Japan, we must seek them in the hearts, and hear them flow from the lips of the mothers of the Island Empire.

CHAPTER IV.

INVASION OF THE MONGOL TARTARS

Embassies from China—The Chinese Armada—Acts of Personal Bravery—Heroism of Michiari—The Whole Nation Aroused—The Wrath of Heaven—To the Victor Belongs the Spoils—Evil Counsel—The Divinity of Kings—The Temporary Mikadoate.

DURING the early centuries of the Christian era, friendly intercourse was regularly kept up between Japan and China. Embassies were dispatched to and fro on various missions, but chiefly with the mutual object of bearing the congratulations to an emperor upon his accession to the throne. It is mentioned in the "Gazetteer of Echizem" ("Echizen Koku Mei Seiki Ko") that Embassies from China, with a retinue and crew of one hundred and seventy-eight persons, came to Japan A. D. 776 to bear congratulations to the Mikado, Konin Tenno.

Early Expeditions.

The vessel was wrecked in a typhoon off the coast of Echizen, and but forty-six of the company were saved. They were fed and sheltered in Echizen. In A. D. 779, the Japanese Embassy, returning from China, landed at Mikuni, the sea-port of Fukui.

In 883, orders were sent from Kioto to the provinces north of the capital to repair the bridges and roads, bury the dead bodies, and remove all obstacles, because the envoys of China were coming that way. The civil disorders in both countries interrupted these friendly relations in the twelfth century, and communications ceased until they were renewed again in the time of the Hojo, in the manner now to be described.

In China, the Mongol Tartars had overthrown the Sung dynasty, and had conquered the adjacent countries. Through the Koreans, the Mongol Emperor, Kublai Khan, at whose court Marco Polo and his uncles

were then residing, sent letters demanding tribute and homage from Japan. Chinese envoys came to Kamakura, but Hojo Tokimune, enraged at the insolent demands, dismissed them in disgrace. Six embassies were sent, and six times rejected.

Repulse of the Invaders.

An expedition from China, consisting of ten thousand men, was sent against Japan. They landed at Tsushima and Iki. They were bravely attacked, and their commander slain. All Kiushiu having roused to arms, the expedition returned, having accomplished nothing. The Chinese Emperor now sent nine envoys, who announced their purpose to remain until a definite answer was returned to their master.

They were called Kamakura, and the Japanese reply was given by cutting off their heads at the village of Tatsu no kuchi (Mouth of the Dragon), near the city. The Japanese now girded themselves for the war they knew was imminent. Troops from the East were sent to guard Kioto. Munitions of war were prepared, magazines stored, castles repaired, and new armies levied and drilled. Boats and junks were built to meet the enemy on the sea. Once more Chinese Envoys came to demand tribute. Again the sword gave the answer, and their heads fell at Daizaifu, in Kiushiu, in 1279.

Fighting Against Overpowering Odds.

Meanwhile the Armada was preparing. Great China was coming to crush the little strip of land that refused homage to the invincible conqueror. The army numbered one hundred thousand Chinese and Tartars, and seven thousand Koreans, in ships that whitened the sea as the snowy herons whiten the islands of Lake Biwa. They numbered thirty-five hundred in all. In the Seventh month of the year 1281, the tassled prows and fluted sails of the Chinese junks greeted the straining eyes of watchers on the hills of Daizaifu.

The Armada sailed gallantly up, and ranged itself off the castled city. Many of the junks were of immense proportions, larger than the natives of Japan had ever seen and armed with the engines of European

warfare, which their Venetian guests had taught the Mongols to construct and work. The Japanese had small chance of success on the water; although their boats, being swifter and lighter, were more easily managed, yet many of them were sunk by the darts and huge stones hurled by the catapults mounted on their enemy's decks. In personal prowess the natives of Nippon were superior. Swimming out to the fleet, a party of thirty boarded a junk, and cut off the heads of the crew; but another party attempting to do so, were all killed by the now wary Tartars.

Hand to Hand Battles.

One captain, Kusanojiro, with a picked crew, in broad daylight, sculled rapidly out to an outlying junk, and, in spite of a shower of darts, one of which took off his left arm, ran his boat alongside a Chinese junk, and, letting down the masts, boarded the decks. A hand-to-hand fight ensued, and, before the enemy's fleet could assist, the daring assailants set the ship on fire and were off, carrying away twenty-one heads. The fleet now ranged itself in a cordon, linking each vessel to the other with an iron chain. They hoped thus to foil the cutting-out parties.

Besides the catapults, immense bow-guns shooting heavy darts were mounted on their decks, so as to sink all attacking boats. By these means many of the latter were destroyed, and more than one company of Japanese who expected victory lost their lives. Still, the enemy could not effect a landing in force. Their small detachments were cut off or driven into the sea as soon as they reached the shore, and over two thousand heads were among the trophies of the defenders in the skirmishes. A line of fortifications many miles long, consisting of earthworks and heavy palisading planks, was now erected along-shore. Behind these the defenders watched the invaders, and challenged them to land.

Fighting for Their Native Land.

There was a Japanese captain, Michiari, who had long hoped for the invasion. He had prayed often to the gods that he might have opportunity to fight the Mongols. He had written his prayers on paper,

and, burning them, had solemnly swallowed the ashes. He was now overjoyed at the prospect of a combat. Sallying out from behind the breastwork, he defied the enemy to fight.

Shortly after, he filled two boats with brave fellows and pushed out, apparently unarmed, to the fleet. "He is mad," cried the spectators on the shore. "How bold," said the man on the fleet, "for two little boats to attack a thousand great ships! Surely he is coming to surrender himself." Supposing this to be his object, they refrained from shooting.

When within a few oars' lengths, the Japanese, flinging out ropes with grappling-hooks, leaped on the Tartar junk. The bows and spears of the latter were no match for the two-handled razor-like swords of the Japanese. The issue, though for a while doubtful, was a swift and complete victory for the men who were fighting for their native land. Burning the junk, the surviving victors left before the surrounding ships could cut them off. Among the captured was one of the highest officers in the Mongol fleet.

Petitions to the Gods.

The whole nation was now aroused. Re-enforcements poured in from all quarters to swell the host of the defenders. From the monasteries and temples all over the country went up unceasing prayer to the gods to ruin their enemies and save the land of Japan. The emperor went in solemn state to the chief priest of Shinto, and writing out his petitions to the gods, sent him as a messenger to the shrines of Ise.

It is recorded, as a miraculous fact, that at the hour of noon, as the sacred envoy arrived at the shrine and offered the prayer—the day being perfectly clear—a streak of cloud appeared in the sky, which soon overspread the heavens, until the dense masses portended a storm of awful violence.

The Elements Favor the Japanese.

One of those cyclones of appalling velocity and resistless force, such as whirl along the coasts of Japan and China during late summer and early fall of every year, burst upon the Chinese fleet. Nothing can withstand these maelstroms of the air. We call them typhoons; the

Japanese say "tai-fu," or "okaze" (great wind). Iron steamships of thousands of horse-power are almost unmanageable in them.

Junks are helpless; the Chinese ships were these only. They were butted together like mad bulls. They were impaled on the rocks, dashed against the cliffs, or tossed on land like corks from the spray. They were blown over till they careened and filled. Heavily freighted with human beings, they sunk by hundreds. The corpses were piled on the shore or floating on the water so thickly that it seemed almost possible to walk thereon. Those driven out to sea may have reached the mainland, but were probably overwhelmed. The vessels of the survivors, in large numbers, drifted or were wrecked upon Taka Island, where they established themselves, and cutting down trees, began building boats to reach Korea.

Utter Destruction of the Chinese Army.

Here they were attacked by the Japanese, and, after a bloody struggle, all the fiercer for the despair on the one side and the exultation on the other, were all slain or driven into the sea to be drowned, except three, who were sent back to tell their emperor how the gods of Japan had destroyed their armada. The Japanese exult in the boast that their gods and their heaven prevailed over the gods and heaven of the Chinese.

This was the last time that China ever attempted to conquer Japan, whose people boast that their land has never been defiled by an invading army. They have ever ascribed the glory of the destruction of the Tartar fleet to the interposition of the gods of Ise, who thereafter received special and grateful adoration as the guardian of the seas and winds. Great credit and praise were given to the lord of Kamakura, Hojo Tomkimune, for his energy, ability and valor. The author of the Guai Shi says: "The repulse of the Tartar barbarians by Tokune, and his preserving the dominions of our Son of Heaven, were sufficient to atone for the crimes of his ancestors."

Nearly six centuries afterward, when "the barbarian" Perry anchored his fleet in the Bay of Yedo, in the words of the native annalist, "Orders

were sent by the imperial court to the Shinto priests at Ise to offer up prayers for the sweeping away of the barbarians." Millions of earnest hearts put up the same prayers as their fathers had offered, fully expecting the same results.

To this day the Japanese mother in Kiushiu hushes her fretful infant by the question, "Do you think the Mogu (Mongols) are coming?" This is the only serious attempt at invasion ever made by any nation upon the shores of Japan.

Desire for a Supreme Ruler.

The first step to be taken after the defeat of the Hojos and the overthrow of the military usurpation of Kamakura was to recall the Mikado Go-Daigo (1319-1336) from exile. With the sovereign again in full power, it seemed as though the ancient and rightful government was to be permanently restored. The military or dual system had lasted about one hundred and fifty years, and patriots now hoped to see the country rightly governed, without intervention between the throne and the people.

The rewarding of the victors who had fought for him was the first duty awaiting the restored exile. The methods and procedure of feudalism were now so fixed in the general policy of the Government, that Go-Daigo, falling into the ways of the Minamoto and Hojo, apportioned military fiefs as guerdons to his vassals. Among them was Ashikaga Takauji, to whom was awarded the greatest prize, consisting of the rich provinces of Hitachi; and to Nitta, Kodzuki and Harima, besides smaller fiefs to many others.

The Ambition of Ashikaga.

The unfair distribution of spoils astounded the patriots, who expected to see the high rank and power conferred upon Nitta and Kusunoki, the chief leaders in the war for the restoration, and both very able men.

It would have been well had the emperor seen the importance of disregarding the claims and privileges of caste, and exalted to highest rank the faithful men who were desirous of maintaining the dignity of

the throne, and whose fear was that the duarchy would again arise. Such a fear was by no means groundless, for Ashikoga, elated at such unexpected favor, became inflamed with a still higher ambition, and already meditated refounding the shogunate at Kamakura, and placing his own family upon the military throne.

Being of Minamoto stock, he knew that he had prestige and popularity in his favor, should he attempt the re-election of the shogunate. Most of the common soldiers had fought rather against Hojo than against duarchy. The emperor was warned against this man by his ministers; but in this case a woman's smiles and caresses and importunate words were more powerful than the advice of sages. Ashikaga had bribed the Mikado's concubine Kadoko and had so won her favor that she persuaded her imperial lord to bestow excessive and undeserved honor on the traitor.

Discontent Prevails.

The distribution of spoils excited discontent among the soldiers, who now began to lose all interest in the cause for which they had fought, and to murmur privately among themselves. "Should such an unjust government continue," said they, "then we are all servants of concubines and dancing-girls and singing-boys. Rather than be the puppets of the Mikado's amusers, we would prefer a shogun again, and become his vassals."

Many of the captains and smaller clan-leaders were also in bad humor over their own small shares. Ashikaga Takauji took advantage of this feeling to make himself popular among the disaffected, especially those who cling to arms as a profession and wish to remain soldiers, preferring war to peace. Of such inflammable material the latent traitor was not slow to avail himself when it suited him to light the flames of war.

Had the Mikado listened to his wise counsellor, and also placed Kusunoki in an office commensurate with his commanding abilities, and regarded Nitta as he deserved, the century of anarchy and bloodshed which followed might have been spared to Japan.

Sampson and Delilah.

Go-Daigo, who in the early years of his former reign had been a man of indomitable courage and energy, seems to have lost the best traits of his character in his exile, retaining only his imperious will and susceptibility to flattery. To this degenerate Sampson a Delilah was not wanting. He fell an easy victim to the wiles of one man, though the shears by which his strength was shorn were held by a woman.

Ashikaga was a consummate master of the arts of adulation and political craft. He was now to further prove his skill, and to verify the warnings of Nitta and the ministers. The emperor made Moriyoshi, his own son, shogun. Ashikaga, jealous of the appointment, and having too ready access to the infatuated father's ear, told him that his son was plotting to get possession of the throne. Moriyoshi, hating the flatterer, and stung to rage by the base slander, marched against him.

Ashikaga now succeeded by means of his ally in the imperial bed in making himself, in the eyes of the Mikado, the first victim to the conspiracies of the prince. So great was his power over the emperor that he obtained from the imperial hand a decree to punish his enemy Moriyoshi as a "choteki," or rebel, against the Mikado.

The Emperor All-Powerful.

Here we have a striking instance of what, in the game of Japanese state-craft may be called the checkmate move, or, in the native idiom, "Ote," "king's hand." It is difficult for a foreigner to fully appreciate the prestige attaching to the Mikado's person—a prestige never diminishing. No matter how low his actual measure of power, the meanness of his character, or the insignificance of his personal abilities, he was the Son of Heaven, his word was law, his commands omnipotent.

He was the fountain of all rank and authority. No military leader, however great his resources or ability, could win the popular heart or hope for ultimate success unless appointed by the emperor. He who held the Son of Heaven in his power was his master. Hence it was the constant aim of all the military leaders, even down to 1868, to obtain control of the imperial person.

However wicked or villainous the keeper of the Mikado, he was master of the situation. His enemies were choteki against the Son of Heaven; his own soldiers were the "kuan-gun," or royal army. Even might could not make right. Possession of the divine person was more than nine-tenths—it was the whole—of the law.

Murder of the King's Son.

Moriyoshi, then, being choteki, was doomed. Ashikaga, having the imperial order, had the kuan-gun, and was destined to win. The sad fate of the emperor's son awakens feelings, and brings tears to the eyes of the Japanese reader even to the present day. He was seized, deposed, sent to Kamakura, and murdered in a subterranean dungeon in the seventh month of the year 1335.

His child in exile, the heart of the emperor relented. The scales fell from his eyes. He saw that he had wrongly suspected his son, and that the real traitor was Ashikaga. The latter, noticing the change that had come over his master, left Kioto secretly, followed by thousands of the disaffected soldiery, and fled to Kamakura, which he had rebuilt, and began to consolidate his forces with a view of again erecting the eastern capital, and seizing the power formerly held by the Hojo.

Nitta had also been accused by Ashikaga, but having cleared himself in a petition to the mikado, he received the imperial commission to chastise his rival. In the campaign which followed, the imperial forces were so hopelessly defeated that the quandam imperial exile now became a fugitive. With his loyal followers he left Kioto, carrying with him the sacred emblems of authority.

Allegiance of the People Divided.

Ashikaga, though a triumphant victor, occupied a critical position. He was a choteki. As such he could never win success. He had power and resources, but, unlike others equally usurpers, was not clothed with authority. He was, in popular estimation, a rebel of the deepest dye. In such a predicament he could not safely remain a day. The people would take the side of the emperor.

What should he do? His vigor, astuteness and villainy were equal. The Hojo had deposed and set up emperors. It was Ashikaga who divided the allegiance of the people, gave Japan a "War of the Roses" (or Chrysanthemums), tilled the soil of feudalism and lighted the flames of war that made Kioto a cock-pit, abandoned the land for nearly two centuries and a half to slaughter, ignorance, and paralysis of national progress.

To clothe his acts with right, he made a new Son of Heaven. He declared Kogen, who was of the royal family, emperor. In 1336, this new Son of Heaven gave Ashikaga the title of Sei-i Tai Shogun. Kamakura again became the military capital. The duarchy was restored, and the War of the Northern and Southern Dynasties began, which lasted fifty-six years.

The Temporary Mikadoate.

The period of 1333-1336, though including little more than two years of time, is of great significance as marking the existence of a temporary mikadoate. The fact that it lasted so short a time, and that the duarchy was again set up on its ruins, has furnished both natives and foreigners with the absurd and specious, but strongly urged argument that the Government of Japan, by a single ruler from a single centre, is an impossibility, and that the creation of a dual system with a "spiritual" or nominal sovereign in one part of the empire, and a military or "secular" ruler in another, is a necessity.

During the agitation of the question concerning the abolition of the dual system, and the restoration of the mikado in 1860-1868, one of the chief arguments of the adherents of the shogunate against the scheme of the agitators was the assertion that the events of the period 1333-1336 proved that the mikado could not alone govern the country, and that it must have duarchy.

Even after the overthrow of the shogun Keiki, known as the "Tycoon," in 1868, foreigners, as well as natives, who had studied Japanese history, fully believed and expected that in a year or two the present mikado's Government would be overthrown and the "Tycoon"

return to power, basing their belief on the fact that the mikadoate of 1333-1336 did not last.

Whatever force such an argument might have had when Japan nad no foreign relations, and no aliens on her soil to disturb the balance between Kioto and Kamakura, it is certain that it counts for naught when, under altered conditions, more than the united form of the whole empire is now required to cope with the political pressure from without.

CHAPTER V.

THE WAR OF THE CHRYSANTHEMUMS

Divine Origin of the Mikado—Violent Hands Never Laid Upon the Emperor's Person—Two Mikados—The North Against the South—National Heroes—Kusunoki, the Brave—Lust for Land and War—The Succession Settled—Complete List of Mikados.

THE dynasty of the imperial rulers is the oldest in the world. No other family line extends so far back into the remote ages as the nameless family of mikados. Disdaining to have a family name, claiming descent, not from mortals, but from the heavenly gods, the imperial house of the Kingdom of the Rising Sun occupies a throne which no plebian has ever attempted to usurp.

Throughout all the vicissitudes of the imperial line, in plentitude of power or abasement of poverty, its members deposed or set up at the pleasure of the upstart or political robber, the throne itself has remained unshaken. Unclean hands have not been laid upon the ark itself. As in the procession of life on the globe the individual perishes, the species lives on, so, though individual mikados have been dethroned, insulted or exiled, the prestige of the line has never swerved.

Enshrined in the Hearts of His Countrymen.

The soldier who would begin revolution, or who lusted for power, would make the mikado his tool; but, however transcendent his genius and abilities, he never attempted to write himself mikado. No Japanese Caesar ever had his Brutus, nor Charles his Cromwell, nor George his Washington.

Not even, as in China, did one dynasty of alien blood overthrow another, and reign in the stead of a destroyed family. Such events are unknown in Japanese annals. The student of his people, and their

unique history can never understand them or their national life unless he measures the mightiness of the force, and recognizes the place of the throne and the mikado in the minds and hearts of the people.

The Japanese Wars of the Roses.

There are on record instances in which the true heirship was declared only after bitter intrigue, quarrels, or even bloodshed. In the tenth century, Taira no Masakado disappointed in not being appointed Dai Jo Dai Jin, left Kioto, went to Shimosa in the Kuanto, and set himself up as Shinno, or cadet of the imperial line, and temporarily ruled the eight provinces of the East as a pseudo-mikado.

In 1139, the military families of Taira and Minamoto came to blows in Kioto over the question of succession between the rival heirs, Shutoku and Go-Shirakawa. The Taira being victors, their candidate became mikado. During the decay of the Taira, they fled from Kioto, carrying with them, as true emperor, with his suite and the sacred insignia, Antoku, the child, five years old, who was drowned in the sea when the Taira were destroyed. The Minamoto at the same time recognized Gotoba.

It may be more analogical to call the wars of the Gen and Hei, with their white and red flags, the Japanese Wars of the Roses. Theirs was the struggle of rival houses. Now, we are to speak of rival dynasties, each with the imperial chrysanthemum.

Two Mikados in the Field.

In the time of the early Ashikagas (1336-1390) there were two mikados ruling, or attempting to rule, in Japan. The Emperor Go-Daigo had chosen his son Kuniyoshi as his heir, but the latter died in 1326. Kogen, son of the mikado Go-Fushimi (1299-1301), was then made heir. Go-Daigo's third son, Moryoshi, however, as he grew up, showed great talent, and his father regretted that he had consented to the choice of Kogen, and wished his own son to succeed him.

He referred the matter to Hojo at Kamakura, who disapproved of the plan. Those who hated Hojo called Kogen the "false emperor," re-

fusing to acknowledge him. When Nitta destroyed Kamakura, and Go-Daigo was restored, Kogen retired to obscurity. No one for a moment thought of or acknowledged any one but Go-Daigo as true and only mikado. When, however, Ashikaga, by his treachery, had alienated the emperor from him, and was without imperial favor, and liable to punishment as a rebel, he found out and set up Kogen as mikado, and proclaimed him sovereign. Civil war then broke out.

A Story of Bloodshed and Treachery.

Into the details of the war between the adherents of the Northern emperor, Ashikaga, with his followers, on the one side, and Go-Daigo, who held the insignia of authority, backed by a brilliant array of names famous among the Japanese, on the other, I do not propose to enter. It is a confused and sickening story of loyalty and treachery, battle, murder, pillage, fire, famine, poverty, and misery, such as make up the picture of civil wars in every country. Occasionally in this period a noble deed or typical character shines forth for the admiration or example of succeeding generations. Among these none have exhibited more nobly man's possible greatness in the hour of death than Nitta Yoshisada and Kusunoki Masashige.

Heroism of Nitta.

On one occasion the army of Nitta, who was fighting under the flag of Go-Daigo, the true emperor, was encamped before that of Ashikaga. To save further slaughter, Nitta sallied out alone, and, approaching his enemy's camp, cried out: "The war in the country continues long. Although this has arisen from the rivalry of two emperors, yet its issue depends solely upon you and me. Rather than millions of the people should be involved in distress, let us determine the question by single combat."

The retainers of Ashikaka prevailed on their commander not to accept the challenge. In 1338, on the second day of the Seventh month, while marching with about fifty followers to assist in investing a fortress in Echizen, he was suddenly attacked in a narrow path in a rice-field

near Fukui by about three thousand of the enemy, and exposed without shields to a shower of arrows. Some one begged Nitta, as he was mounted, to escape.

"It is not my desire to survive my companions slain," was his response. Whipping up his horse, he rode forward to engage with his sword, making himself the target for a hundred archers. His horse, struck when at full speed by an arrow, fell. Nitta, on clearing himself and rising, was hit between the eyes with a white-feathered shaft, and mortally wounded. Drawing his sword, he cut off his own head—a feat which the warriors of that time were trained to perform—so that his enemies might not recognize him.

Death Rather Than Dishonor.

He was thirty-eight years old. His brave little band were slain by arrows, or killed themselves with their own hand, that they might die with their master. The enemy could not recognize Nitta, until they found, beneath a pile of corpses of men who had committed hara-kiri, a body on which, inclosed in a damask bag, was a letter containing the imperial commission in Go-Daigo's handwriting, "I invest you with all power to subjugate the rebels."

Then they knew the corpse to be that of Nitta. His head was carried to Kioto, then in possession of Ashikaka, and exposed in public on a pillory. The tomb of this brave man stands, carefully watched and tended, near Fukui, in Echizen, hard by the very spot where he fell. A shrine and monument were erected in his native place during the year 1875.

The Story of Kusunoki.

The brave Kusunoki, after a lost battle at Minatogawa, near Hiogo, having suffered continual defeat, his counsels having been set at naught, and his advice rejected, felt that life was no longer honorable, and solemnly resolved to die in unsullied reputation and with a soldier's honor. Sorrowfully bidding his wife and infant children good-bye, he calmly committed hara-kiri, an example which his comrades, numbering one hundred and fifty, bravely followed.

Kusunoki Masashige was one of an honorable family who dwelt in Kawachi, and traced their descent to the great-grandson of the thirty-second mikado, Bidatsu (A. D. 572-585). The family name, Kusunoki ("Camphor"), was given his people from the fact that a grove of camphor-trees adorned the ancestral gardens of the mansion. The twelfth in descent was the Vice-governor of Iyo. The father of Masashige held land possessed at two thousand "koku." His mother, desiring a child, prayed to the god Bishamon for one hundred days, and Masashige was born after a pregnancy of fourteen months.

The mother, in devout gratitude, named the boy Tamon (the Sanskrit name of Bishamon), after the god who had heard her prayers. The man-child was very strong, and at seven could throw boys of fifteen at wrestling. He received his education in the Chinese classics from the priests in the temple, and exercised himself in all manly and warlike arts. In his twelfth year he cut off the head of an enemy, and at fifteen studied the Chinese military art, and made it the solemn purpose of his life to overthrow the Kamakura usurpation, and restore the mikado to his power.

A Lost Opportunity.

In 1830, he took up arms for Go-Daigo. He was several times besieged by the Hojo armies, but was finally victorious with Nitta and Ashikaga. When the latter became a rebel, defeated Nitta, and entered Kioto in force, Kusunoki joined Nitta, and thrice drove out the troops of Ashikaga from the capital. The latter then fled to the West, and Kusunoki advised the imperialist generals to follow them up and annihilate the rebellion. His superiors, with criminal levity, neglecting to do this, the rebels collected together, and again advanced, with increased strength by land and water, against Kioto, having, it is said, two hundred thousand men.

Kusunoki's plan of operations was rejected, and his advice ignored. With Nitta he was compelled to bear the brunt of battle against overwhelming forces at Minato gawa, near Hiogo, and was there hopelessly defeated. Kusunoki, now feeling that he had done all that was possible

to a subordinate, and that life was no longer honorable, retired to a farmer's house at the village of Sakurai, and there, giving him the sword bestowed on himself by the mikado, admonished his son Masatsura to follow the soldier's calling, cherish his father's memory, and avenge his father's death. Sixteen of his relatives, with unquailing courage, likewise followed their master in death.

A Patriot of the Highest Type.

Of all the characters in Japanese history, that of Kusunoki Masashige stands pre-eminent for pureness of patriotism, unselfishness of devotion to duty, and calmness of courage. The people speak of him in tones of reverential tenderness, and, with an admiration that lacks fitting words, behold in him the mirror of stainless loyalty. Every relic of this brave man is treasured up with religious care; and fans inscribed with poems written by him, in fac-simile of his handwriting, are sold in the shops and used by those who burn to imitate his exalted patriotism. His son Masatsura lived to become a gallant soldier.

The war, which at first was waged with the clearly defined object of settling the question of the supremacy of the rival mikados, gradually lost its true character, and finally degenerated into a free fight on a national scale. Before peace was finally declared, all the original leaders had died, and the prime object had been, in a great measure, forgotten in the lust for land and war. Even the rival emperors lost much of their interest, as they had no concern in brawls by which petty chieftains sought to exalt their own name, and increase their territory by robbing their neighbors.

Abdication and Coronation.

In 1392, an envoy from Ashikaga persuaded Go-Kameyama to come to Kioto and hand over the regalia to Go-Komatsu, the Northern emperor. The basis of peace was that Go-Kameyana should receive the title of Dai Jo Tenno (ex-emperor), Go-Komatsu be declared emperor, and the throne be occupied alternately by the rival branches of the imperial family.

The ceremony of abdication of surrender of regalia, on the one hand, and of investiture, on the other, were celebrated with due pomp and solemnity in one of the great temples in the capital, and the war of fifty-six years' duration ceased. All this redounded to the glory and power of Ashikaga.

The period of 1336-1392 is of great interest in the eyes of all native students of Japanese history. In the Dai Nihon Shi, the Southern dynasty are defended as the legitimate sovereigns, and the true descendants of Ten Sho Dai Jin, the sun-goddess; and the Northern dynasty are condemned as mere usurpers.

The same view was taken by Kitabatake Chikafusa, who was the author of the Japanese Red Book, who warned the emperor Go-Daigo against Ashikaga, and in 1339 wrote a book to prove that Go-Daigo was mikado, and the Ashikaga's nominee a usurper. This is the view now held in modern Japan, and only those historians of the period who award legitimacy to the Southern dynasty are considered authoritative. The Northern branch of the imperial family after a few generations became extinct.

The Mikados of Japan.

Jimmu	Emperor 660 B. C.	Anko	Emperor 453 A. D.
Suisei	Emperor 581 B. C.	Yuriaku	Emperor 456 A. D.
Annei	Emperor 548 B. C.	Seinei	Emperor 480 A. D.
Itoku	Emperor 510 B. C.	Kenso	Emperor 485 A. D.
Koshio	Emperor 475 B. C.	Ninken	Emperor 488 A. D.
Koan	Emperor 392 B. C.	Buretsu	Emperor 499 A. D.
Korei	Emperor 290 B. C.	Ketai	Emperor 507 A. D.
Kogen	Emperor 214 B. C.	Ankan	Emperor 534 A. D.
Kaikua	Emperor 157 B. C.	Senkuwa	Emperor 536 A. D.
Sujin	Emperor 97 B. C.	Kimmei-Tenno	Emperor 540 A. D.
Suinin	Emperor 29 B. C.	Bitatsu-Tenno	Emperor 572 A. D.
Keiko	Emperor 71 A. D.	Yomei	Emperor 586 A. D.
Seimu	Emperor 131 A. D.	Sushun	Emperor 588 A. D.
Chuai	Emperor 192 A. D.	Suiko-Tenno	Empress 503 A. D.
Jingu-Kogo	Empress 201 A. D.	Yomei	Emperor 629 A. D.
Ojin	Emperor 270 A. D.	Kokioku	Empress 642 A. D.
Nintoku	Emperor 313 A. D.	Kotoku	Emperor 645 A. D.
Richiu	Emperor 400 A. D.	Saimei, the name assumed by ex-Empress Kokioku when she resumed the crown	655 A. D.
Hansho	Emperor 405 A. D.		
Inkyo	Emperor 411 A. D.		

Tenji ..... Emperor 668 A. D.
Kobun ..... Emperor 572 A. D.
Temmu ..... Emperor 673 A. D.
Jito-Tenno ..... Empress 690 A. D.
Mommu ..... Emperor 697 A. D.
Gemmei ..... Empress 708 A. D.
Gensho ..... Empress 715 A. D.
Shomu ..... Emperor 724 A. D.
Koken ..... Empress 749 A. D.
Jungin-Tenno ..... Emperor 759 A. D.
Ex-Empress resumed throne as Koken-Shotoku .....765 A. D.
Konin, grandson of Tenji, Emperor .....770 A. D.
Kuwammu ..... Emperor 782 A. D.
Heizei ..... Emperor 806 A. D.
Saga ..... Emperor 810 A. D.
Junna ..... Emperor 824 A. D.
Nimmio ..... Emperor 834 A. D.
Montoku ..... Emperor 851 A. D.
Seiwa ..... Emperor 859 A. D.
Yozei ..... Emperor 877 A. D.
Koko ..... Emperor 885 A. D.
Uda ..... Emperor 893 A. D.
Daigo ..... Emperor 898 A. D.
Shujaku ..... Emperor 931 A. D.
Murakami ..... Emperor 947 A. D.
Reizei ..... Emperor 968 A. D.
Enyu ..... Emperor 970 A. D.
Kuwazan ..... Emperor 985 A. D.
Ichijo ..... Emperor 987 A. D.
Sanjo ..... Emperor 1012 A. D.
Go-Ichijo ..... Emperor 1017 A. D.
Go-Shujaku ..... Emperor 1038 A. D.
Go-Reizei ..... Emperor 1046 A. D.
Go-Sanjo ..... Emperor 1069 A. D.
Shirakawa ..... Emperor 1073 A. D.
Horikawa ..... Emperor 1087 A. D.
Toba ..... Emperor 1108 A. D.
Shutoku ..... Emperor 1124 A. D.
Konoye ..... Emperor 1142 A. D.
Go-Shirakawa ..... Emperor 1156 A. D.
Nijo ..... Emperor 1159 A. D.
Rokujio ..... Emperor 1166 A. D.
Takakura ..... Emperor 1169 A. D.
Antoku ..... Emperor 1181 A. D.
Go-Toba ..... Emperor 1186 A. D.
Tsuchi-Mikado ..... Emperor 1199 A. D.
Juntoku ..... Emperor 1211 A. D.
Chukio ..... Emperor 1221 A. D.
Go-Horikawa ..... Emperor 1221 A. D.
Shijo ..... Emperor 1231 A. D.
Go-Saga ..... Emperor 1244 A. D.
Go-Fukakusa ..... Emperor 1247 A. D.
Kame-Yama ..... Emperor 1266 A. D.
Go-Uda ..... Emperor 1270 A. D.
Fushimi ..... Emperor 1288 A. D.
Go-Fushimi ..... Emperor 1299 A. D.
Go-Nijo ..... Emperor 1301 A. D.
Hanazono ..... Emperor 1308 A. D.
Go-Daigo ..... Emperor 1319 A. D.
Komio Tenno ..... Emperor 1336 A. D.
Go-Murakami Tenno... Emperor 1339 A. D.
Shuko ..... Emperor 1349 A. D.
Go-Kuwoogon ..... Emperor 1352 A. D.
Go-Kame-Yama ..... Emperor 1368 A. D.
Go-Enyu ..... Emperor 1372 A. D.
Go-Komatsu ..... Emperor 1393 A. D.
Shoko ..... Emperor 1413 A. D.
Go-Hanazono ..... Emperor 1429 A. D.
Go-Tsuchi-Mikado... Emperor 1465 A. D.
Go-Kashiwabara..... Emperor 1501 A. D.
Go-Nara ..... Emperor 1527 A. D.
Oki Machi ..... Emperor 1558 A. D.
Go-Yozei-Tenno .... Emperor 1587 A. D.
Go-Miwa ..... Emperor 1612 A. D
Miosho ..... Empress 1630 A. D.
Go-Komio ..... Emperor 1644 A. D.
Gozai-in ..... Emperor 1655 A. D.
Reizen ..... Emperor 1663 A. D.
Higashiyama ..... Emperor 1687 A. D.
Naka-Mikado ..... Emperor 1710 A. D.
Sakura-Machi ..... Emperor 1736 A. D.
Momozono ..... Emperor 1747 A. D.
Go-Sakura Machi.... Empress 1763 A. D.
Go-Momozono ..... Emperor 1771 A. D.
Kokaku ..... Emperor 1780 A. D.
Niako ..... Emperor 1817 A. D.
Komei ..... Emperor 1847 A. D.
Mutsuhito ..... Emperor 1867 A. D.

CHAPTER VI.

RISE AS A MODERN POWER

The Climate and Flora of Japan—The Fuji-San—Origin of the Japanese Race—The "Feathered Men"—Peculiarities of the Japanese Language—Energetic Japanese Empresses—The Avolition of Christianity—The Ancient Authority of the Mikado Triumphs.

ENTWINED in the limpid arms of the great Pacific Ocean lies a clustering chain of over three thousand islands, called by its ancient inhabitants—from its fancied resemblance to a dragon-fly—"Siet-Eish-Ieu,"—the "Dragon-Fly Land." Also, owing to its position in the extreme East, it has been named "Dai Nippon," or "Birthplace of the Sun."

Fair As the Garden of the Lord.

This ocean home of the rising sun, is one of the most beautiful spots on our globe, with its endless line of foam-fringed coast, its rich plains and fertile valleys, its green hill slopes and forest-clad mountains towering one above the other in grandeur, and its picturesque harbors, safe and lovely. It has a cold, crisp, bracing climate in winter, with not too fervid a sun in summer. It has a magnificent flora of over one hundred and fifty evergreens alone, and no end of rare deciduous trees—the camphor, the wax, the violet-scented paulownia, the pomegranate, the cotton, and wax tree, the magnolia, the chestnut, maple, pear, cherry, plum, peach, apple, myrtle, orange, with an endless variety of flowers—camelias, lilies, roses, side by side with the azalea and the mikado's armorial flower, the chrysanthemum. The glory of autumn foliage is unrivalled except by that of North America.

But of all beautiful objects of nature in Japan the most famous is the volcanic mountain, Fuji-san, or "Heaven Seeker," often written Fuji-

yama. Daily the imaginative children of the great Nippon gaze toward this most sacred object. Its snow-crowned peak towering in solitary grandeur guides thousands of devout pilgrims. The devotee climbs its volcanic sides, toiling and fasting and praying, and resting anon at each of the lava huts. When he has reached its awful summit he spends the night at a lava temple, where he abjures the past, and makes promise of a better future. Before dawn, bathed, clothed in pure white, he salutes the rising sun with a hymn of praise. He then performs the circuit of the lofty Fuji-san, gazes with awe on the mouth of its crater, over five hundred feet deep, shaped like an eight-petaled lotus flower!

Celebrated In Picture and Story.

Etherealized by the beautiful story that the lofty Fuji-san burnt its great heart until it took on the shape of a lotus-flower—the sacred symbol of the Buddhist religion and which blooms for every true Buddhist a divine meaning—it is held to be a conscious being, looking down with love and pity upon humanity toiling at its feet. Fuji-san is celebrated by Japanese poets and artists, in song and hymn, in legends and pictured story, in glowing colors and golden outlines on pots, and pans, trays, vases, urns, incense-burners, panels, cabinets, and stately mausoleums.

Ranking next to Fuji-san is the Biwa or "Lute-shaped Lake," said to be the twin sister of the Fuji-san, both miraculously produced by the same earthquake.

Who Are the Japanese?

This land, the great Dai Nippon—corrupted into Japan—is inhabited by the sunniest people on our planet. Their manners, customs, amusements, language, religion, history, poetry, art, fiction all give us pictures of a nation simple, joyous, imaginative, artistic, and neither too laborious, nor too superstitiously religious.

But when we inquire who are they, when come they, what attracted them to these sunny isles, when settled they there, and how are they related to us and to the rest of our Asiatic Cousins—then we find ourselves groping in the dark.

To judge from their mental and physical characteristics, the Japanese seem allied to several distinct races. The Mongolian type is everywhere prevalent; the oblique eyes are common among the aristocracy, who indeed are of pure Mongolian descent; this form of eye is held as a distinguishing mark of beauty. Nevertheless there are faces among them strictly Semitic; and there are others of the Aryan type.

Wholly Different From the Chinese.

As to customs they have little in common with the Chinese. They do not dwarf the feet of their girls. The "pigtail" is not preserved—on the contrary a lock of hair is often worn in front; a shipwrecked sailor escaping death invariably lays his front lock as an offering on the altar of the sun goddess Ise. The peculiar gait of the Chinese is never seen; the dull air is replaced by a brisk, off-hand manner. In fact the Japanese is unlike the typical Asiatic who is sober, sedate and reflective. He is far less conservative than the Chinese, more influenced by new ideas, and has little or no dread of change. He is, in truth, an Asiatic Yankee.

In view of these peculiarities and in the absence of fuller scientific research, we conclude that the Japanese, though chiefly of Turanian stock, are not without some large mixture of Aryan blood; that in their formation as a people they have assimilated some of the finer qualities of both the Turanian and Aryan branches of the human family; and also that they are undoubtedly allied to a very curious and ancient people called Ainos, a race of prehistoric times, which is rapidly disappearing before Japanese civilization.

A Peculiar Race.

When the Japanese took possession of the beautiful dragon-fly shaped land is a matter of uncertainty. Search their annals, consider their legends and traditions, question their archives and historical books—all we can discover is that from time immemorial there were strange spectres, the "Khon Bal Yai," or "Feathered Men"—which name was given them by the Mongolian invaders, because of the long, soft hair with which their bodies are covered—and that these were the ancient people called Ainos. But how and when the Ainos themselves obtained

a footing on the Dragon-Fly Land, is a subject of deep mystery to the ethnologist.

All we know is that the Ainos, or "hairy Kuriles," as they are sometimes called (now mostly to be found in the island of Yesso), once occupied the greater part of the country; and that they were driven north by adventurous races coming from the southwest. They are small, well-proportioned, strongly-built, of an Aryan type of countenance, and of a singularly kind and gentle disposition. Their women, however, render themselves hideous by tattooing their hairy bodies with grotesque figures, and letting the hair of their heads fall over their shoulders to their knees. The winter dress of both sexes consists of robes of wild beast skin; in summer of cotton tunics reaching to the knee, with a leathern girdle.

Habits and Customs of the Ainos.

They now live in communities of fifteen or twenty families, under a patriarchal chief. Their huts are of mud, thatched with dried leaves, straw, or branches of trees plaited together. Their manners are bright and cheerful at home, and extremely courteous when abroad; they salute one another by bowing to the ground. Their judicial cases are presided over by the chiefs of adjoining villages; and law is administered with something of the quiet dignity of a religious ceremony.

Although they obtain from the Japanese rice, tea, sugar, and many other necessities, by bartering furs and skins, still the sounds of some few industries may be heard in their villages: the thumping of the cloth-maker, the song of the cord-twister and the net-maker; the elder women turn the soft tree-wool into thread wherewith to spin their garments, the younger women rock their children to sleep to the wildest and most plaintive airs ever tuned by a savage tribe. The young men are hunters, trappers and fishermen.

When evening draws on the Aino villages resound to the drum, bag-pipe and flute, a bonfire crackles and flames on the village common, an itinerant trader, or Shinto priest with his wondrous tales of the sun goddess or demons, and heroes, or perchance a more civilized Buddhist

missionary, is hospitably regaled with the best the village affords; the Ainos boys and girls, shy as wild deer, will by degrees cluster around the one or the other, examine the peddler's wares, listen to the stories of Ise, the sun goddess, or sit drinking in the tale of the good Buddha which never fails to move to love the most savage of human hearts.

Early Settlements.

About 290 B. C. settlements were founded on the main islands of Japan by Mongols. They drove north large numbers of the Ainos, and absorbed the more peaceable into their own population. This invasion was succeeded by formidable ingressions of the "black savages" of Japanese history; probably Malay tribes from Papua, New Guinea, or Dyacks from Borneo and the adjoining lands. It would seem that these various tribes established colonies and, intermarrying with the Ainos and Mongol invaders, became the progenitors of the present Japanese.

Origin of the Language.

The language of the Japanese has been a source of equal perplexity to the philologist. He is at a loss to understand certain marks of originality and isolation exhibited by this form of speech. It shows traces of an early Aryan influence, but such as rather to deepen than to clear up the mystery. One thing is clear—that if the structure of the Japanese language was fundamentally Aryan, the separation from the parent tongue must have taken place at an early period, when the Aryan branch of the human speech was still in its infancy.

The language is extremely melodious in sound, and vigorous in expression. It is agglutinative—that is, it preserves its roots in their simple form. In fact the peculiarities of the ancient Japanese tongue are so many that it is difficult to establish its true relationship to the other languages of the world. It has been enriched since A. D. 255 by the adoption of Chinese words, symbols, and written characters, much in the same way as the English is constantly being added to by the borrowing of Latin and Greek words for literary and scientific purposes.

Style of Printing and Writing.

Though the written language of the Japanese is exceedingly pure and classical, it is difficult to read, owing to a complex style of writing and printing. There are in use two styles of writing; the one called the square character—borrowed from the Chinese—is employed in literary manuscripts, official documents, and state papers; the other—the running or short hand—is used for all ordinary purposes; its lines run perpendicularly and are read downwards, beginning with the column to the right of the reader. Thus a Japanese book begins where our books end.

The language shows one striking affinity with that of the Turanian family—it possesses a complete dictionary of fine-sounding and extravagantly laudatory terms, appropriate to only royal and noble persons, and held too sacred for the use of ordinary people. The language is spoken with greater purity by the Japanese women than by the men. All that we know as yet, with regard to the language of the Ainos, or aboriginals, is, that this ancient tongue is not now understood by the Japanese.

History Repeats Itself.

The more we study the varied annals of India, Persia, Phoenicia, Egypt, Palestine, Arabia, China, Thibet, Korea, Japan, the more are we struck with the truth of that old saying: "History repeats itself." The same causes produced the same results in Japan as in other parts of Asia and Europe.

The Japanese do not, like the Chinese, trace their origin to a Darwinian idea of evolution. Like the Hindoos, Persians, and Jews, they claim to have been created by a Supreme Being; to be the offspring of two celestial persons, Izanagi and Izanami. The emperors pretend to a direct descent from the beautiful sun-goddesses Amaterasu and Ise. The sacred histories of Japan, ignoring the fact that the Ainos were the aboriginal population of Japan, relate with much detail that about 660 B. C. Jimmu Tenno, the Son of Heaven, or first mikado, began his reign.

His immediate ancestors were created somehow or other in that re-

fulgent orb, the sun, floated down to the earth, were deposited on a high mountain in the Dragon-Fly Land and furnished with the three insignia of their solar origin—the sacred metallic mirror which reflects their celestial birth (now preserved in one of the temples of Ise), the sword of retribution to enable them to punish evil-doers (now treasured in the magnificent temples of Askasa), and the ball of crystal, emblem of eternity (in the possession of the present emperor.)

Thus from time long past the mikado was held too sacred for ordinary mortals to approach. Only a few trusted individuals were allowed to see and converse with him. As for the government of his kingdom he was far too holy to attend to such sublunary affairs. Hence he gradually came to be regarded as a divine being, fit only to be enshrined and worshiped, while the princes aided by the empresses of Japan administered the affairs of the country.

Royal Women Workers.

Naturally the empresses became energetic and powerful rulers; the divinity of their lords and masters seems to have stimulated rather than to have blunted their zeal in promoting the material prosperity of their country. These royal women superintended the building of cities, bridges, temples, ships and harbors; they reformed the ancient laws, started agricultural industries, patronized the manufacture of silk, cotton and fine crepe stuffs, and even caused good roads to be laid out where the foot of man had never trodden.

In the first century of our era a Japanese empress had her first-born son instructed in all civil and military exercises. When he had finished his schools, she placed him at the head of a large body of trained men and sent him to the north, commanding him not to return until he had subjugated the rebellious Ainos, who had taken up arms against the Japanese government. Yamato Dhake, as brave a man as he was an obedient son, carried out the queen-mother's instructions, and having subdued the rebels, acted with such good judgment and clemency that he induced the Ainos chiefs to acknowledge the supremacy of his enshrined father, the Mikado Keiko, and was himself so loved and rev-

erenced that he is to this day worshiped as a pure deity by the simple-hearted Ainos.

Two centuries later another Japanese empress, the beautiful Jeengho, exasperated by the ravages on her country of vast bodies of Korean pirates, placed herself and her son, the Prince Ohjeeu, at the head of an army, sailed across the straits of Korea, invaded that exclusive land, reduced to submission its king and returned home triumphant, bringing back with her from the Chosen Land the first books ever seen in Japan; but the crowning act of her life was her conversion to Buddhism and the encouragement she gave to Buddhist missionaries to teach the humanizing religion of the Indian saint.

Embracing a New Religion.

Then was witnessed the sight of a whole nation penetrated by the higher moral teaching, and embracing a new religion, without any attempt to persecute or abolish the old—the Shinto or nature-worship of ancient Japan.

From this moment the door of progress was opened; architects, painters, japanners, musicians, dancers, chroniclers, artisans, potters, porcelain-manufacturers, fortune-tellers, all crowded into Japan, and were welcomed by the empress who left nothing undone to further both the spiritual and material advancement of her country.

But this happy state of things soon closed. The imperial family was composed of various heterogeneous elements from which there had emerged into prominence two lines of dynasties (with no end of feudal chiefs), out of which there arose about this time two princely families. Both having acquired immense possessions, and a vast influence over the minds of the people by means of their military talents, they now began to claim, each in its own respective right, the hereditary title of Military Dictator of the realm.

Like the houses of York and Lancaster, the hatreds and discords of these two families involved the country in civil wars. They adopted a red flag and a white flag as their respective standards, and were known as the Taira and Minamoto clans. The annals of these wars are filled

with wonderfully romantic incidents, deeds of exalted courage, chivalry and devotion, strangely identical with those of the feudal times of European history.

Religious Discussions.

And now when the higher life and progress of Japan would undoubtedly have been stifled under the despotic rule of the daimios and shoguns, there appeared on the scene certain Portuguese trading vessels, closely followed by a band of Roman Catholic priests, headed by the famous St. Francis Xavier, who were invited by the then dominant shogun, Nobunga, to set forth the merits of their religion.

The Christian priests and Buddhist monks met in the council hall of the military despot, and joined in long discussions on the doctrines of their respective religions before rapt and discriminating audiences. Christianity obtained a firm and vital hold on the affections of the Japanese. The Christian priests were not only encouraged to remain, but a church and monastery were built for them, wherein to teach and preach the doctrines of their church. It is impossible to describe the joy with which these priests were heard, or the enthusiasm with which the people flocked to the little Christian temple, bringing their children with them, to be instructed and baptised in the name of Christ.

The Japanese Christian, with that manly independence which knows no shame in professing a new religion, rejoiced openly in the purity, beauty and freedom of the Gospel. Many and many a noble embraced Christianity, and at last Christian societies were formed in several of the great cities, and imperial Rome began to consider the subjugation of the whole island to Portugal.

But the despotic spirit of the shoguns, which had been softened by the influence of Christianity, suddenly revived and kindled into hatred of the new religion. In spite of the Portuguese missionaries having placed themselves under the protection of certain powerful Christian nobles, they were seized, and nine were burned alive at Nagasaki. Nevertheless the new religion continued to attract converts from all parts of the island, and found protection during one or two of the succeeding reigns.

Persecution of Christians.

In the battle of Sekeghara, A. D. 1600, the shogun of the house of Minamoto came off victorious. Taking up his residence at the castle town of Yedo, he and his successors swayed the destinies of the beautiful island; and no sooner was he established as supreme military dictator than the persecution of both foreign and native Christians was renewed with fury. Such of the daimios as embraced Christianity were prohibited on political grounds from favoring the new religion; two hundred foreign missionaries were ordered on pain of death to quit the country. The greater number departed. Only a few souls, who preferred death to abandoning the cause of Christ which now numbered over two million souls, refused to obey the mandate. Concealed in remote village inns, or in nooks and corners of the mountain regions, they stole out at night to teach, encourage, and pray with their persecuted followers. One by one they were discovered, taken prisoners, and each put to death; while the native Christians were hunted down and killed like wild beasts.

Finally came the awful tragedy of Shimbara in 1637, when thirty thousand Christians were massacred, and whoever escaped and was retaken was hurled from the summit of Takaboko-Shima into the foaming waves of the beautiful harbor of Nagasaki. Then the spread of Christianity in Japan seemed to be effectually arrested.

Reforms Instituted.

For two hundred and fifty years, Japan was shut in, as if with bolts and bars, from all foreign intercourse. Every vestige of her foreign trade was abolished. Only a few Chinese and one or two Dutch traders were permitted to remain unmolested at a small port called Deshima Christians were denounced as the "wicked sect."

But Iyeyasu himself, the ruthless persecutor, could not resist the impetus given to his country. He instituted many reforms in the government, and caused the first great history of Japan to be composed and published. T'sunayoshi, his successor, founded a university for the

study of Chinese classics, and the teachings of the great Mongol sage Confucius. An observatory was built, and the heavens were scanned with wonder and delight; and those matchless mausoleums at Nikko, now the national shrines of Japan, were erected to the memories of the great shogun rulers, Iyeyasu, and Iyemitsu, his grandson.

An Event of Importance.

While these great works were being carried on, there happened one little event, insignificant enough at the time, but which, unfolding in the light of future history, seems to stretch forth until there is no measuring the length and breadth of it. There was in 1771 an adventurous young physician in Yedo named Sugita. One day as he was rambling through the city, he chanced in a shop upon a Dutch book on anatomy. He could not read a word of its contents, but he was so struck with its wonderful illustrations of the human body that he bought the book and did not rest till he had succeeded in getting copies for two of his young friends; night and day they pondered over the illustrations, and then determined to test their accuracy.

At a medical dissection Sugita and his friends compared and verified beyond all doubt the strict fidelity of the pictures in the Dutch treatise. The three obtained secret instruction from the Dutch at Deshima, and having mastered the book, they translated it into Japanese, reproduced the illustrations, and as if by some miracle, it found favor with the authorities, and soon became the text-book on anatomy at the medical school of Yedo. Little by little the fruits of this labor of love began to appear; and the desire for true knowledge once more rekindled was never again utterly extinguished.

First Step Towards a Greater Civilization.

In 1854 Commodore Perry appeared in the harbor of Japan, and succeeded in making a treaty between Japan and the United States. Four years after Lord Elgin secured a similar concession for Great Britain—and then, when everything seemed most propitious, there followed a sudden reaction. Jealousy and suspicion entered the minds

of the feudal lords. The government was shaken to its centre. Intrigues and assassinations filled the beautiful island. The factions of the shogun and the mikado contended for supremacy. No life was safe. Native, American, French, Dutch, and English officials were openly assailed, insulted, or basely assassinated in the public highways. One dark deed followed another, until the very elements began to take part in the work of devastation; earthquakes, typhoons, great tidal waves, devouring conflagrations and pestilences followed one another and swept the Dragon Fly Land, which seemed like a huge cauldron, boiling and seething over.

In 1868 the mikado's party triumphed over that of the shogun. In 1877 the regime of the military despotism was abolished. The ancient authority of the mikado was re-established; a political crisis exactly similar to that which took place in England in the time of Edward IV.

The mikado was re-enthroned, as a responsible and human sovereign. A council assisted him to regulate all state affairs. A governor was placed over each province. A man of experience and integrity was appointed over each of the departments of Foreign Affairs, Finance, War, Marine, Public Works, Agriculture, Commerce and Education. Christian teachers, professors and scientists, were welcomed to aid in the reformation; and our Asiatic cousins of the Dragon-Fly Land seemed absolutely to leap onward towards a great civilization.

CHAPTER VII.

JAPANESE HOME LIFE

Social Customs—Japanese Houses—Marriage Customs—The Family—The Bath—No Mock Modesty—Household Utensils—Very Little Furniture—The Cuisine—Poorly Ventilated Bed-Rooms.

SIMPLICITY is the key-note of the Japanese home-life, and because of it Japan, as an empire, has been able to endure and grow strong under such adverse circumstances as might have wiped it out of existence had it been endowed or cursed, with our modern civilization. Every family has a home. There are no boarding-houses, and the hotels, which are comparatively few, considering the size of the population, are used only by travelers. A stay of a couple of weeks at a hotel is considered a long one.

Love Not the Motive in Marriage.

The men and women marry young, but rare is the man who is able or who cares to take his bride to a home of his own. The social unit in Japan is the family, not the married couple. It is for no such trivial matter, in their eyes, as love or mutual attachment that marriages are made among the Japanese. Far weightier the reason, which is the purpose of continuing the family, that sons and heirs may be born to perform the ancestor-worship and keep alive the family name.

If a family is so unfortunate as to have no son, or to have lost the son by death, then either a son must be legally adopted, or, in case there is a daughter, a suitable husband is chosen, who, upon his marriage, assumes the family name, and in all respects, legal and personal, is given the place of a true son and heir.

Children are carefully reared and trained to meet the emergencies

of their existence, and to fill the sphere they are likely to occupy. A girl knows that when she is married, no matter what the social position of the family she enters, her place will be that of servant to her grandmother-in-law, mother-in-law and husband, just as long as they live, and that when her eldest son arrives at an age of dignity, she will become his chief servant as well.

Houses Inconceivably Small.

The domestic economy of the household is of the simplest character, and so, of necessity, the houses are small and simple beyond American imaginations. A family of eight persons will live in perfect comfort in a one-story house twenty-four feet square, with no cellar and only a small air-chamber above, hardly large enough to call a loft, which is sometimes used for storage. This house will probably have a small vestibule entrance, while directly joining this entrance is the kitchen, for what corresponds to our better living-rooms are always at the back of the house, and the kitchen and bath in the front.

The rear portion of the house is usually arranged so that it may be divided by sliding screens, called "fusuma," into two rooms, and these overlook a garden that may be very small or of dignified proportions; but a garden there is sure to be, even if it covers only a few square feet.

Whether the house be in a city or a country village, it will be set directly on the line of the street, for a garden front is almost unknown. Except in the Europeanized Tokio, and in the foreign concessions of the port cities, there are no sidewalks, and so one enters from the roadway through a gate into a small covered recess where odd-shaped stones serve for stepping-places to the vestibule. A tradesman, or one on unpleasant business, gets no farther than this entrance; but the bride, conducted after the wedding ceremony to her husband's home, is ushered in with much formality; the members of the family take their places in the vestibule in proper order of precedence, and prostrate themselves in reverences of the deepest respect.

The Mother-in-Law Supreme.

The age of the bride will probably be twenty years, and the bridegroom's, twenty-one. He, let us say, is the eldest son, and so the first to marry. Pleased are the mother and the aged grandmother to have added to the household a new and willing handmaid.

The family consists of the "obaa-san," the honorable elderly one, the mother of the lord and master, who may be an honorable judge of the local court; his wife, who really, will not regret the day the aged mother-in-law passes on to the land of the Sun Goddess, that she, at last, may be mistress in her own household instead of chief servant. Then come two younger children—a boy of seventeen, who attends the modern schools, and is taught strange and incredible things, and a dear little girl of twelve, who is not larger than the American child of eight. A maid servant, of perhaps thirty, but far older in looks, completes the household. None of these is a stranger to the little bride, who has lived all her life in the neighborhood, but her heart is heavy and filled with foreboding, for fear she may fail in her chief duty, which is to please and serve each member of the household, not excepting even the old family servant, who may prove to be the most fault-finding of them all.

Little or no Privacy.

Beyond the kitchen there are two other rooms of the house, and, as the screens separating these rooms are removed at early dawn, the occupants have no privacy as we know it. But privacy is the last thing a Japanese wants. He is sociable by nature; he likes his fellow-beings, and to be alone would be unhappiness to him. So far does his love of society lead him that he much prefers to take his public bath at the public bath-house, where he may chat and gossip, while he scrubs and soaks himself, in company with a number of his fellow townspeople. When this pleasure was denied him, he formerly used to have his own private bath-tub removed to the roadside by his doorway, where he could pass the time of day with his neighbors and the passing traveler while enjoying his ablutions.

This custom was likewise held to by the women of the family. Now, however, since the restoration of '68, and the enactment of new, and, to the Japanese, incomprehensible laws, the local police will permit no tubs by the village roadside, and they may be found there only in districts so remote and isolated that the visits of the watchful police are few and far between.

The Rooms Bare of Furniture.

A Japanese household has no need of separate bedrooms, dining-room or parlor, for one room easily serves the purpose of all three. Rooms are absolutely bare of furniture, no matter how wealthy the family, with the exception, possibly, of a lacquered table raised from the floor about one foot. The furnishings of a house consist of the beautiful, spotlessly clean straw mats, three feet wide, six feet long and two inches thick, that lie snugly over the entire floor-space. Every room is built just such a size that it holds a certain number of mats, and is spoken of as a three-mat, six-mat, eight-mat or ten-mat room. On these mats are laid cushions stuffed with layers of cotton wadding, and covered with linen covers of soft, dull shades of blue, green, gray or brown, or, rarely, of a soft brown or gray leather.

The Hibachi.

The "hibachi," or fire-box, might be considered a piece of furniture, for there are always one or more of these in every room of the house. They are bowls or boxes of metal, wood, china or pottery, and vary in size from ten to twenty inches in diameter. The hibachi is well filled with charcoal ashes, on the top of which are placed pieces of live charcoal. A tripod of metal or pottery sets over the live coals, and on it rests the ever-present water-kettle, in which water for the tea is kept boiling. In cold weather, the hibachi serves a double purpose, for it is the only means employed for heating. Small and insignificant as it appears, it really does temper the air in a room when the "shoji" and "fusuma" are closed, and around it the family will crouch, warming their hands and wrists over the glowing coals.

Objects of Utility and Beauty.

A second household utensil never lacking is the "tabako-bon." This is a small square box, usually of wood, containing a tiny little bowl, also filled with ashes, on the top of which is some live charcoal for lighting the pipes and cigarettes that are smoked by both men and women, and in the box is also a section of bamboo, which forms a tall, slim cup into which are dropped the ashes from pipes and cigarette-ends.

Some object of beauty is necessary to the life of every Japanese household, however humble, and so in one of the rooms is always a recess called "toko-no-ma," which is raised a few inches above the floor. In this recess hangs a "kakemona," or picture on a scroll, and below it stands a vase containing some arrangement of flowers or branches of a tree. These pictures and floral arrangements have special significance, and are changed from day to day and according to the season.

The members of the family sit on their heels on the cushions, with the hibachis and tabako-bons beside the elder, and therefore most honorable, personages in the household; for age is truly venerated in the East, and the older one grows, the greater the veneration inspired, and the more consideration and courtesy one is shown.

When a guest arrives, a cushion is placed in front of the toko-no-ma, which, being the place of honor, is offered as a proof of extreme politeness.

Articles of Food.

Usually, the kitchen is of such tiny proportions that it is a marvel to foreigners how a meal can be prepared there. The cook-stove, or range, will probably be a plaster contrivance of only two holes, upon which the pots and pans rest, and under which are poked short pieces of wood or small pieces of charcoal. The rice is boiled here, and the fish fried or broiled, the vegetables cooked, fish-soup made, and also delicious omelettes; but no bread or butter, milk, cream or cheese ever enters a Japanese house. The few cakes and sweets used, and dainties such as eels fried in "shoyu," and sweet potatoes, are always bought at the public shops, and "sembe," or biscuits of various sorts, also come

from the manufacturers. The sweet potato is to the children what candy is to the foreigner. There are shops that sell nothing but boiled sweet potatoes, and a Japanese would as soon think she could cook a sweet potato at home as a foreigner would think she could make French candy.

Table Manners.

At meal-time lacquer-trays are spread in the kitchen; one for each member of the family, and on the tray are placed the covered empty bowl for the rice; the tiny dish of pickles to eat with the rice; the bowl of fish-soup, in which is floating a square of snow-white bean curd; the small dish with the fried or boiled fish, and the dish of vegetables, such as egg-plant, lotus-root, bamboo-shoot, beans, or possibly artichoke, according to the season. There are also the chop-sticks with which to eat the food. The maid brings in each tray, places it before each member of the family, making a reverence each time, and then goes out, returning with a small, white wooden tub, tightly covered, in which is the smoking rice. The rice is beautifully cooked, each flake being separate; for gummy, ill-cooked rice is looked upon with disgust, and eaten under protest. It is customary to eat three bowls of rice at least at each meal (the bowls are the size of a small teacup), but not one grain must be left in the bowl when the meal is finished, for that is a sign of ill-breeding. While the meal is in progress, the maid sits by the rice-tub and serves the family, and refills the bowls. With the last bowlful, hot tea is usually poured over the rice, and later the rice-bowl may be used in place of a teacup.

The trays are all removed when the meal is over, and the dining-room again becomes the living-room, which purpose it continues to serve until bedtime arrives.

Japanese Beds.

Then the maid brings forth from some well-concealed cupboard the "futons," which serve both as mattresses and bedding, and these she lays upon the straw mats of the floor, one close to the other, side by side. In the rooms of the house we have described there would be space for four in each room, with no uncomfortable crowding, so in the

first room would sleep grandmother, father and mother and the little daughter; while in the next room would be the bride and bridegroom, the seventeen-year-old son and the servant, unless by chance the latter had a family and home of her own, to which she would go each night.

The futons are about six feet long and three wide, and are much heavier than our comfortables. They are covered with bright-colored cotton cloth, and no sheets or counterpanes are used. Two are given to each person, one to sleep on and one to sleep under, and with them goes a wooden pillow, or rather block, that fits into the nape of the neck, or perhaps a small round roll stuffed hard with rice-husk. An "andon," or lantern, stands on the floor, containing a saucer of oil and a wick formed of the pith from a plant, or maybe, a malodorous kerosene lamp. All night long these lamps burn, for ghosts cannot see their way about unless it is dark, and ghosts are not desirable companions, day or night.

Stuffy Sleeping Apartments.

The fear of ghosts clings pertinaciously to the Japanese people in spite of the influence of Western education and conversions to Christianity, and this trait causes them to suffer the most unhygienic conditions to accompany their sleep.

In the daytime, the Japanese cannot have too much fresh air, and winter or summer, rain or shine, at the first peep of dawn, the "amado," heavy wooden shutters, that really are the outside walls of the house, are slid back on their iron groove, and neatly stacked away in the recess built for them at the end of the house. Inside the amado, just three feet distant, are the "shoji," or fragile sliding paper screens, and these too, are pushed back, one upon the other, or lifted out entirely, and thus, with both the outside and inside walls removed, the household practically lives in the open. The one thing they seem to require in superabundance by day is fresh air, but their desire for this vanishes suddenly the moment bedtime comes, and first the shoji and fusuma are put back in their places, and then the heavy amado, with much pushing and creaking, are slid snugly home and fastened shut with a long iron or wooden bar.

When this has been done, the household is prepared for its slumbers, but the only fresh air that can possibly get into the house at night must force itself through the one or two small crescents that may perhaps have been cut in the amado, to give a ray of light for the maid who comes to open them in the morning. It is needless to say that a night spent in such an atmosphere is not conducive to the maintenance of a healthy body, and the two conditions that contribute most to the alarming spread of consumption in Japan, and make its cure almost hopeless, are those of the sleeping-rooms being shared by so many people, and the lack of ventilation at night.

CHAPTER VIII.

RELIGIONS OF JAPAN

Buddhism in Its Early Purity—A Popular Religion—Eternal Life Not to be Desired—Various Sects—Nichiren—Buddhist Protestants—Shintoism, Its Gods and Symbols—How the Records Were Preserved—Christianity—Its Introduction and Eradication—Early Martyrs—The Jesuits—The Fire Smoldering.

THE indigenous religions of Japan are Shintoism and Buddhism. The religion founded by Buddha, which is older by six centuries than that founded by Christ is professed by nearly one-third of the human race, and has a literature perhaps larger than all other religious literatures combined. Christians must surely be interested in knowing of the faith they are endeavoring to displace, and when it is considered that Buddhist temples are already erected upon American soil, that a new development of this ancient faith may yet set itself up as a rival of Christianity, the subject will be seen to possess an immediate interest.

True Estate of the Human Soul.

Buddhism originated as an atheistic system, with a philosophy and a code of morals higher, perhaps, than any heathen religion had reached before, or has since attained. It taught that the souls of all men had lived in a previous state of existence, and that all the sorrows of this life are punishments for sins committed in a previous state. Each human soul has whirled through countless eddies of existence, and has still to pass through a long succession of birth, pain, and death. All is fleeting—nothing is real—this life is all a delusion. After death, the soul must migrate for ages through stages of life, inferior or superior, until, perchance, it arrives at last in Nirvana, or absorption in Buddha. The true estate of the human soul, according to the Buddhist, is blissful annihilation.

Besides the cardinal prohibitions against murder, stealing, adultery, lying, drunkenness, and unchastity, "every shade of vice, hypocrisy, anger, pride, suspicion, greediness, gossiping, cruelty to animals, is guarded against by special precepts. Among the virtues recommended, we find not only reverence of parents, care of children, submission to authority, gratitude, moderation in time of prosperity, submission in time of trial, equanimity at all times; but virtue such as the duty of forgiving insults, and not rewarding evil with evil." Whatever the practice of the people may be, they are taught, as laid down in their sacred books, the rules thus summarized above.

Buddhism Becomes a Theological System.

Such, as we may glean, was Buddhism in its early purity. Besides its moral code and philosophical doctrines, it had almost nothing. An ecclesiastical system it was not in any sense. Its progress was rapid and remarkable. Though finally driven out of India, it swept through Burmah, Siam, China, Thibet, Manchuria, Korea, Siberia, and finally, after twelve centuries, entered Japan.

By this time the bare and bald original doctrines were glorious in the apparel with which Asiatic imagination and priestly necessity had clothed and adorned them. The ideas had been expanded into a complete theological system, with all the appurtenances of a stock religion.

General councils had been held, decrees had been issued, dogmas defined or abolished; Buddhism had emerged from philosophy into religion. The Buddhist missionaries entered Japan having a mechanism perfectly fitted to play upon the fears and hopes of an ignorant people, and to bring them into obedience to the new and aggressive faith.

If there was one country in which the success of Buddhism as a popular religion seemed foreordained, that country was Japan. It was virgin soil for anything that could be called a religion. Before Buddhism came, very little worthy of the name existed. Day by day, each new ray of the light of research that now falls upon that gray dawn of Japanese history shows that Shinto was a pale and shadowy cult, and

that the coming of Buddhism quickened it, by the force of opposition, into something approaching a religious system.

If the heart of the ancient Japanese longed after a solution of the questions whence? whither? why?—if it yearned for religious truth, as the hearts of all men doubtless do—it must have been ready to welcome something more tangible than the emptiness of Shinto.

Life Has No Charms for the Asiatic.

Buddhism came to touch the heart, to fire the imagination, to feed the intellect, to offer a code of lofty morals, to point out a pure life through self-denial, to awe the ignorant, and to terrify the doubting. A well-fed and clothed Anglo-Saxon, to whom conscious existence seems the very rapture of joy, and whose soul yearns for an eternity of life, may not understand how a human soul could ever long for utter absorption of being and personality, even in God, much less for total annihilation.

But, among the Asiatic poor, where ceaseless drudgery is often the lot for life, where a vegetable diet keeps the vital force low, where the tax-gatherer is the chief representative of government, where the earthquake and typhoon are so frequent and dreadful, and where the forces of nature are feared as malignant intelligences, life does not wear such charms as to lead the human soul to long for an eternity of it.

New Schools of Thought.

Among the various sects of Buddhism, however, the understanding of the doctrine of Nirvana varies greatly. Some believe in the total nonentity of the human soul, the utter annihilation of consciousness; while others, on the contrary, hold that, as part of the divine whole, the human soul enjoys a measure of conscious personality. Persecution and opposition at first united together the adherents of the new faith, but success and prosperity gave rise to schisms. New sects were founded in Japan, while many priests traveled abroad to Korea and China, and came back as new lights and reformers, to found new schools of thought and worship. Of these the most illustrious was Kobo, famed not only as

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a scholar, but as an eminently holy bonze, or priest, and the compiler of the Japanese alphabet, which, with diacritical points, may be increased to the number of seventy.

The Golden Century of Buddhism.

The thirteenth of the Christian era is the golden century of Japanese Buddhism; for then were developed those phases of thought peculiar to it, and sects founded, most of them in Kioto, which are still the most flourishing in Japan. Among these were, in 1202, the Zen; in 1211, the Jodo; in 1262, the Shin, and in 1282, the Nichiren. In various decades of the century several other important sects originated, and the number of brilliant intellects that adorned the priesthood at this period is remarkable. Of these, only two can be noticed, for lack of space.

In A. D. 1222, there was born, in a suburb of the town of Kominto, in Awa, a child who was destined to influence the faith of millions, and to leave the impress of his character and intellect indelibly upon the minds of his countrymen. He was to found the Nichiren sect of Buddhism, which should grow to be one of the largest, wealthiest, and most influential in Japan.

Characteristics of the Nichirenites.

No other sect is so fond of controversy. The bonzes of none other can excel those of the Nichiren in proselyting zeal, in the bitterness of their theological arguments, in the venom of their revilings, or the force with which they hurl their epithets at those who differ in opinion or practices from them. In their view, all other sects than theirs are useless.

Among the Nichirenites are to be found more prayer-books, drums, and other noisy accompaniments of revivals, than in any other sect. They excel in the number of pilgrims, and in the use of charms, spells, and amulets. Their priests are celibates, and must abstain from wine, fish, and all flesh. They are the ranters of Buddhism. To this day, a revival meeting in one of their temples is a scene that often beggars description; and may weaken deaf ears.

The Youth of Nichiren.

Nichiren ("sun-lotus") was so named by his mother, who at conception had dreamed that the sun ("nichi") had entered her body. This story is also told of other mothers of Japanese great men, and seems to be a favorite stock-belief concerning the women who bear children that afterward become men of renown or exalted holiness

The boy grew up surrounded by the glorious scenery of mountain, wave, shore, and with the infinity of the Pacific Ocean before him. He was a dreamy, meditative child. He was early put under the care of a holy bonze, but when grown to manhood discarded many of the old doctrines, and, being dissatisfied with the other sects, resolved to found one, the followers of which should be the holders and examplers of the pure truth.

A Menace to the Public Peace.

Nichiren founded numerous temples, but was busy during the whole of his life, when not in exile, in teaching, preaching, and itinerating. He published a book called Ankoku Ron ("An argument to tranquilize the country".) The bitterness with which he attacked other sects roused up a host of enemies against him, who complained to Hojo Tokiyori, the "shikken," or holder of the power at Kamakura, and prayed to have him silenced, as a destroyer of the public peace, as indeed the holy man was.

Nichiren was banished to Cape Ito, in Idzu, where he remained three years. On his release, instead of holding his tongue, he allowed it to run more violently than ever against other sects, especially decrying the great and learned priests of previous generations. Hojo Tokiyori again arrested him, confined him in a dungeon below ground, and condemned him to death.

The Gods Intervene.

On a certain day he was taken out to a village on the strand of the bay beyond Kamakura, and in front of the lovely island of Enoshima. This village is called Koshigoye. At this time Nichiren was forty-three

years old. Kneeling down upon the strand, the saintly bonze calmly uttered his prayers.

The swordsman lifted his blade, and, with all his might, made the downward stroke. Suddenly a flood of blinding light burst from the sky, and smote upon the executioner and the official inspector deputed to witness the severed head. The sword blade was broken in pieces, while the holy man was unharmed. Through the clemency of Hojo Tokimune, Nichiren was pardoned and sent to Sado Island. He was afterward released by his benefactor in a general amnesty.

Nichiren founded his sect at Kioto, and it greatly flourished under the care of his disciple, his reverence Nichizo. After a busy and holy life, the great saint died at Ikegami, a little to northwest of the Kawasaki railroad station, between Yokohama and Tokio, where the scream of the locomotive and the rumble of the railway car are but faintly heard in its solemn shades.

The Shin Sect.

The Protestants of Japanese Buddhism are the followers of the Shin sect, founded by his reverence Shinran, in 1262. Shinran was a pupil of Honen, who founded the Jodo shiu, and was of noble descent. While in Kioto, at thirty years of age, he married a lady of noble blood, named Tamayori-hime, the daughter of the Kuambaku. Devout prayer, purity, and earnestness of life, and trust in Buddha himself as the only worker of righteousness, are insisted upon. Other sects teach the doctrine of salvation by works. Shinran taught that it is faith in Buddha that accomplishes the salvation of the believer.

To treat of the doctrinal difference and various customs of the different denominations would require a volume. Japanese Buddhism richly deserves thorough study, and a scholarly treatise by itself.

Sacred Shinto Books.

Notwithstanding the fact that Shintoism is the state religion of Japan, that it has its sacred books and symbols, its gods and goddesses, its temples and priests, many claim that it is more of a political than a religious system, its main tenet being absolute obedience to the mikado,

who is its head. The two most sacred Shinto books are the Kojiki and the Nihonki. Anciently, Japanese books were committed to memory and historical records were not put in written form until the eighth century.

According to a well known authority, in 415 A. D., officials were sent into the country to verify and describe the names of all the families. Later, a transcription of these records, in Chinese characters took place, and in 644 A. D., an historical account of the emperors, the country, the officials and the people is said to have existed, which was destroyed when Iruka was murdered, and his father's palace, in which these records were kept, was burned. Only the history of the country was saved. From this work, as well as from what the old men of the whole empire remembered, a new compilation was made under the Emperor Temmu (673-690 A. D.), and in order that it might not be lost again, it was read to a peasant girl, named Are, who was said never to forget anything she had once heard. From this record, and from what Are still remembered, the first historical record of Japan known to us, the Kojiki, was compiled about thirty years later.

These books contain the mythology of Japan, which is in many ways superior to that of Greece. In another chapter of this work, the reader will find many interesting facts regarding the above-mentioned books, including the Japanese story of "The Creation," which describes the origin of the gods and goddesses, of man, and of the earth.

What the Shintoist Believes.

Shintoism was introduced into Japan about 1,200 years before Buddhism; it is called by the Japanese, Kami-No-Michi, or "The Way of the Gods." A well known writer on the subject states that the characteristics of Shintoism are absence of a doctrinal code, of idol-worship, of priestcraft, and of any teachings concerning the future, and the state of beatification, of heroes, emperors and great men, together with the worship of certain forces and objects in nature. It is said that the Kami, or gôds, number 14,000, of whom 3,700 are known to have shrines; but practically the number is infinite. Each hamlet has its special god,

as well as its shrine; and each child is taken to the shrine of the district in which it is born, a month after birth, and the god of that shrine becomes his patron. Each god has its annual festival, while many have particular days of each month on which people visit their shrines. There are good gods, who are worshiped in order that there may be an increase of good gifts, and there are bad gods to be appeased. There is the sun-god, and the moon-god; there are gods of storms, winds, rain, thunder, fertility, mountains, fields and streams.

Objects of Worship.

Among the Shintoists, perhaps the most common object of worship is the sun, hence, Japan is called "The Land of the Rising Sun." Then there are the "Seven Patrons of Happiness," who have charge of long life, riches, daily food, contentment, talents, glory and love. Their images are carved in ivory, wood, or cast in bronze, and found in every house, sold in the stores, painted on shop signs, and seen in picture books. The Shinto temples are very plain, being constructed of wood with thatched roofs. They contain no idols, but in the courtyard figures of animals are frequently seen.

Probably the most sacred places of Shintoism are the shrines of Ise, visited every year by thousands of pilgrims, but Fugi-Yama, the sacred mountain, its snow-covered heights rising over 13,000 feet above the sea, is first in the hearts of the people of Japan. It is a frequent sight to see hundreds of Shinto pilgrims gathered on the mountain side, robed in white, singing their chants to the rising sun. Outside of its sacred character, however, this majestic mountain rising from a level plain and reaching its snow-capped top above the clouds, possesses a majestic beauty that strikes the beholder with awe and admiration.

Christianity, Firearms and Foreigners.

Mendez Pinto, a Portuguese adventurer, was probably the first European who landed on Japanese soil. Pinto, while in China, had got on board a Chinese junk, commanded by a pirate. They were attacked by another corsair, their pilot was killed, and the vessel was driven off

the coast by a storm. They made for the Liu Kiu, but, unable to find a harbor, put to sea, and after twenty-three days beating about, sighted the island of Tanegashima ("Island of the Seed"), off the south of Kiushiu, and landed.

The native histories recount the first arrival of Europeans on Tanegashima in 1542, and note that year as the one in which fire-arms were first introduced. Pinto and his two companions were armed with arquebuses, which delighted the people, ever ready to accept whatever will tend to their advantage. They were even more impressed with the novel weapons than by the strangers. Pinto was invited by the daimio of Bungo to visit him, which he did.

The natives began immediately to make guns and powder, the secret of which was taught them by their visitors. In a few years, as we know from Japanese history, fire-arms came into general use. To this day many country people call them "Tanegashima." Thus, in the beginning, hand-in-hand, came foreigners, Christianity and fire-arms. To many a native they are still each and equal members of a trinity of terrors, and one is a synonym of the other. Christianity to most of "the heathen" still means big guns and powder.

Missionary Work Begins.

The pirate trader who brought Pinto to Japan cleared twelve hundred per cent on his cargo, and the three Portuguese returned, loaded with presents, to China. This new market attracted hundreds of Portuguese adventurers to Japan, who found a ready welcome at the hands of the impressible people. The daimios vied with each other in attracting the foreigners to their shores, their object being to obtain the weapons, and get the wealth which would increase their power, as the authority of the Ashikaga shoguns had before this time been cast off, and each chief was striving for local supremacy.

In 1549, Xavier and a brother priest, with two Japanese converts, landed at Kagoshima, in Satsuma. Xavier, after studying the rudiments of the language, beyond which he never advanced, soon left the capital of this war-like clan, for the city had not been favored with the com-

merce of the Portuguese; and, as the missionaries had not come to improve the material resources of the province, they were not warmly welcomed. He then went to Bungo and Nagato. Besides having an interpreter, though unable to preach, he used to read the Gospel of Matthew translated into Japanese, and Romanized. There trade was flourishing and enriching the daimios, and he was warmly received by them. His next step was a journey to Kioto. The mikado's authority, he found, was merely nominal; the shogun, Ashikaga Yoshiteru, ruled only over a few provinces around the capital. Every one's thoughts were of war, and battle was imminent. He attempted to preach several times in the streets, but, not being master of the language, failed to secure attention, and after two weeks left the city. Not long after, he departed from Japan, disheartened by the realities of missionary work.

Success of the New Faith.

He had, however, inspired others, who followed him, and their success was amazingly great. Within five years after Xavier visited Kioto, seven churches were established in the vicinity of the city itself, while scores of Christian communities had sprung up in the south-west. In 1581, there were two hundred churches, and one hundred and fifty thousand native Christians.

In Bungo, in Harima and Omura, the daimios themselves had professed the new faith, while Nobunaga, the hater of the Buddhists, openly favored the Christians, and gave them eligible sites upon which to build dwellings and churches.

In 1583, an embassy of four young noblemen was dispatched by the Christian daimios of Kiushiu to the pope, to declare themselves vassals of the Holy See. Eight years afterward, having had audience of Philip II. of Spain, and fulfilled their mission to the pope at Rome, they returned, bringing with them seventeen Jesuit missionaries. Spanish friars from the Philippine Islands, with Dominicans and Augustans, also flocked to the country. The number of Christians at the time of the highest success of the missionaries in Japan was, according to their own figures, six hundred thousand.

Internal Strife and Dissension.

At this time, political and religious strife was almost universal in Europe, and the quarrels of the various nationalities followed the buccaneers, pirates, traders, and missionaries to the distant seas of Japan. The Protestant, Dutch, and English stirred up the hatred and fear of the Japanese against the Catholics and finally against each other. Spaniards and Portuguese blackened the character of their rivals and as vigorously abused each other when it served their interest. All of which impelled the shrewd Japanese to contrive how to use them one against the other, an art which they still understand. All foreigners, but especially Portuguese, then were slave-traders, and thousands of Japanese were bought and sold and shipped to Macao, in China, and to the Philippines. The daimio, Hideyoshi repeatedly issued decrees threatening with death these slave-traders, and even the purchasers. The seaports of Hirado and Nagasaki were the resort of the lowest class of adventurers from all European nations, and the result was a continual series of uproars, broils, and murders among the foreigners.

The Law Defied.

While Nobunaga lived, and the Jesuits were in his favor, all was progress and victory. Hideyoshi, though at first favorable to the new religion, issued, in 1587, a decree of banishment against the foreign missionaries. The Jesuits closed their churches and chapels, ceased to preach in public, but carried on their work in private as vigorously as ever, averaging ten thousand converts a year, until 1590. The Spanish mendicant friars, pouring in from the Philippines, openly defied the Japanese laws, preaching in their usual garb in public. This aroused Hideyoshi's attention, and his decree of expulsion was renewned. Some of the churches were burned. In 1596, six Franciscan, three Jesuit, and seventeen Japanese converts were taken to Nagasaki, and there crucified. Still the Jesuits resided in the country. The Christians next looked to Hideyori for their friend and quasi-leader. The battle of Sekighara, and the defeat of Hideyori's following, blew their hopes to the winds; and

the ignominious death of Ishida, Konishi, and Otani, the Christian generals, drove their adherents to the verge of despair.

The new daimios began to persecute their Christian subjects and to compel them to renounce their faith. The native converts resisted even to blood and the taking-up of arms. This was an entirely new thing under the Japanese sun. Hitherto the attitude of the peasantry to the government had been one of passive obedience and slavish submission.

Measures to Blot Out Christianity.

Color was given to this idea by the fact that the foreigners still secretly or openly paid court to Hideyori. Iyeyasu became more vigilant as his suspicions increased, and, resolving to crush this spirit of independence and intimidate the foreign emissaries, met every outbreak with bloody reprisals. In 1606, an edict from Yedo forbade the exercise of the Christian religion, but an outward show of obedience warded off active persecution. In 1610, the Spanish friars again aroused the wrath of the government by defying its commands.

In 1611, Iyeyasu obtained documentary proof of the existence of a plot on the part of the native converts and the foreign emissaries to reduce Japan to the position of a subject state. The chief conspirator, Okubo, then governor of Sado, was to be made hereditary ruler by the foreigners.

Iyeyasu now put forth strenuous measures to root out utterly what he believed to be a pestilent breeder of sedition and war. Fresh edicts were issued, and in 1614 twenty-two Franciscan, Dominican, and Augustinian friars, one hundred and seventeen Jesuits, and hundreds of native priests were embarked by force on board junks and sent out of the country.

In 1615, Iyeyasu pushed matters to an extreme with Hideyori, who was then entertaining some Jesuit priests; and, calling out the troops of Kiushiu and the Kuanto, laid siege to the castle of Osaka. A battle of unusual ferocity and bloody slaughter raged on the 9th of June, 1615, ending in the burning of the citadel, and the total defeat and death of Hideyori and thousands of his followers.

Early Christian Martyrs.

The exiled foreign friars, however, kept secretly returning, apparently desirous of the crown of martyrdom. Hidetada, the shogun, now pronounced sentence of death against any foreign priest found in the country. Iyemitsu, his successor, restricted all foreign commerce to Nagasaki and Hirado; all Japanese were forbidden to leave the country on pain of death; and in 1624 all foreigners, except Dutch and Chinese, were banished from Japan.

The Christians suffered all sorts of persecutions. They were wrapped in straw sacks, piled in heaps of living fuel, and set on fire. All the tortures that barbaric hatred or refined cruelty could invent were used to turn thousands of their fellow-men into carcasses and ashes. Yet few of the natives quailed, or renounced their faith. They calmly let the fire of wood cleft from the crosses before which they once prayed consume them, or walked cheerfully to the blood-pit, or were flung alive into the open grave about to be filled up.

The Way of the Cross.

If any one doubt the sincerity and fervor of the Christian converts of to-day, or the ability of the Japanese to accept a higher form of faith, or their willingness to suffer for what they believe, they have but to read the accounts preserved in English, Dutch, French, Latin, and Japanese, of various witnesses to the fortitude of the Japanese Christians of the seventeenth century. The annals of the primitive church furnished no instances of sacrifice or heroic constancy in the Coliseum or the Roman arenas that were not paralleled on the dry river beds and execution grounds of Japan.

Finally, in 1637, at Shimabara, the Christians rose by tens of thousands in arms, seized an old castle, repaired and fortified it, and raised the flag of rebellion. Armies from Kiushiu and the Kuanto, composed mainly of veterans of Korea and Osaka, were sent by the shogun to besiege it. A siege of two months, by land and water, was, however, necessary to reduce the fortress, which was finally done with the aid

of Dutch cannon, furnished under compulsion by the traders at Deshima.

The intrepid garrison, after great slaughter, surrendered, and then the massacre of thirty-seven thousand Christians began, and was finished by the hurling of thousands more from the rock of Pappenberg, in Nagasaki harbor. Thousands more were banished to various provinces, or put to death by torture. Others escaped and fled to the island of Formosa, joining their breathren already there.

The Dutch gained the privilege of a paltry trade and residence on the little fan-shaped island of Deshima in front of Nagasaki. Here, under degrading restrictions, and constant surveillance, lived a little company of less than twenty Hollanders, who were allowed one ship per annum to come from the Dutch East Indies and exchange commodities of Japan for those of Holland.

A Scar on the National Memory.

After nearly a hundred years of Christianity and foreign intercourse, the only apparent results of this contact with another religion and civilization were the adoption of gunpowder and firearms as weapons, the use of tobacco and the habit of smoking, the making of sponge-cake (still called Castira—the Japanese form of Castile), the naturalization into the language of a few foreign words, the introduction of new and strange forms of disease, and the permanent addition to that catalogue of terrors which priest and magistrate in Asiatic countries ever hold as weapons to overawe the herd.

So thoroughly was Christianity supposed to be eradicated before the end of the seventeenth century, that its existence was historical, remembered only as an awful scar on the national memory. It was left to our day, since the recent opening of Japan, for them to discover that a mighty fire had been smoldering for over two centuries beneath the ashes of persecution.

The Leaven at Work.

As late as 1829 seven persons, six men and an old woman, were crucified in Osaka, on suspicion of being Christians, and communicating

CONSCRIPTION IN RUSSIA—DRAWING LOTS FOR MILITARY SERVICE

When in a district it happens that there are more young men fit for service than are required, the recruits have to draw lots to decide who shall serve and who go free, those who draw the highest numbers being released from service. Those recruits who have drawn lucky numbers are joyfully greeted by their families, while the others are surrounded by their weeping relatives.

THE FIRST LAND BATTLE

The attempted landing of Japanese troops on the Liaotung Peninsula was in the nature of a ruse, to mask other designs more far-reaching than this forlorn hope, in which many of the invading force lost their lives at the hands of the Cossack defenders. Still, it is none the less inspiring—this thrilling story of self sacrifice and undaunted courage.

A HOSPITAL TRAIN

The Red Cross Society in Russia took very active measures to care for the sick and maimed during the war. The above typical Manchurian scene shows a wounded soldier being lifted into a hospital coach; near at hand stands a Russian sentry conversing with two peasants, and in the background an army ambulance.

TYPE OF PEASANT WOMAN, CENTRAL RUSSIA

TRAVELING SCHOOL TEACHERS

BLIND BEGGAR TYPE OF NORTHERN RUSSIA

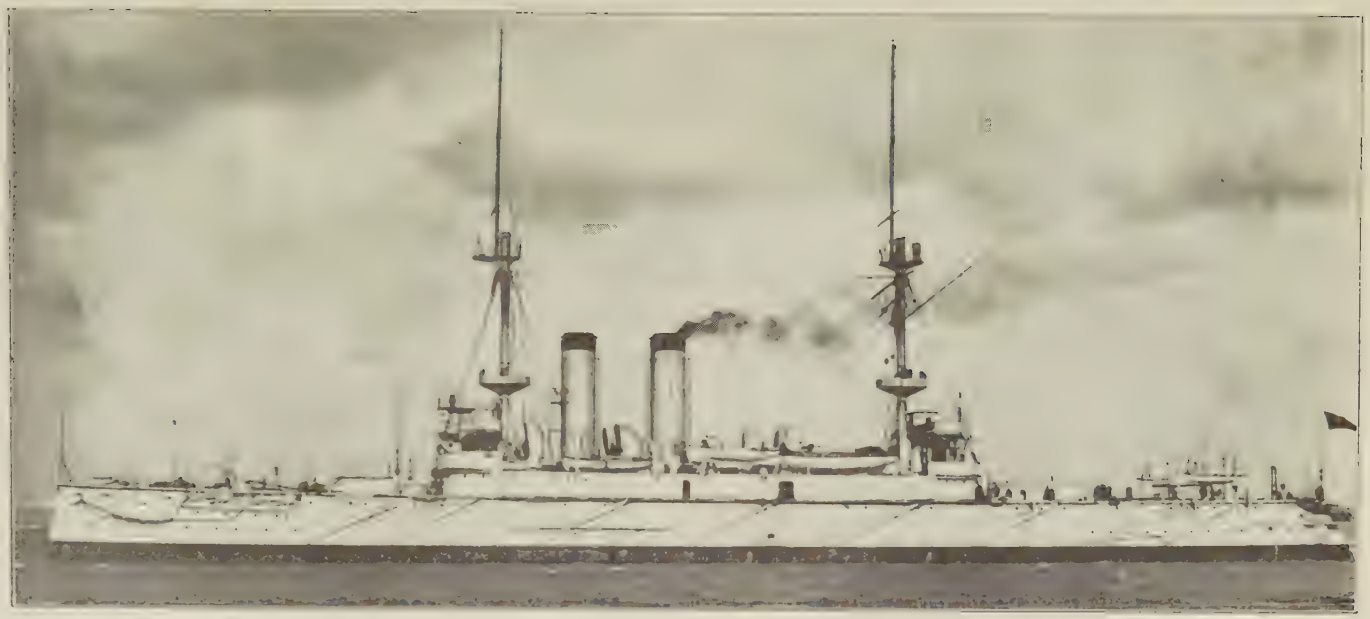
PEASANT WOMAN OF MOSCOW

"THE MAN WHO IS WAKING UP"

The above shows a group of Russian peasants enjoying what we in America would call a "picnic." The peasants were for many years merely serfs or slaves, but Czar Alexander II. gave them their freedom and they are slowly working out their destiny.

MONUMENT AT KIEV
In memory of Grand Duke Vladimir, who introduced Christianity in Russia

PEASANT TYPES OF CENTRAL RUSSIA

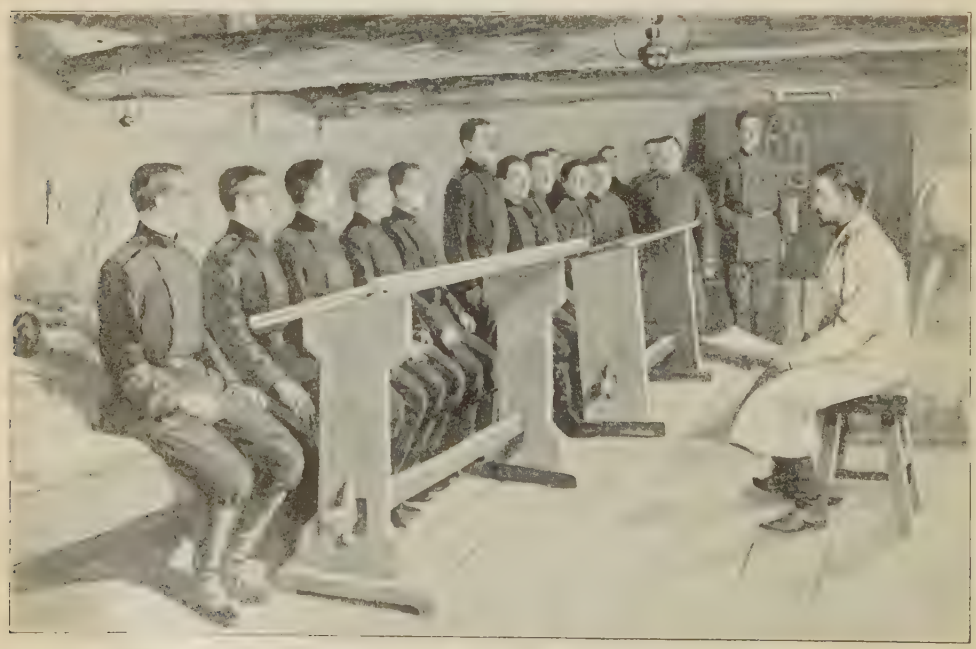


A JAPANESE BATTLESHIP

The above superb man-of-war is the first-class, 15,000 ton, battleship Asaki, one of the most powerful boats in the Japanese navy. Constructed from the very latest models, equipped with a full complement of guns, and manned with a superior force, she proved a deadly menace to the Russian fleet.

CUSTOMS OF JAPANESE LIFE

The traveler in the Far East is struck by the quiet way in which the Japanese amuse themselves. This pretty scene under the wistaria-covered trellis is characteristic of the social habits of the people.



SCENE IN MANCHURIA BEFORE THE WAR

The Russian soldier is an excellent fighting man, but, frequently, is without education. In Manchuria, however, efforts were made to improve his mental condition, and at numerous points on the railway military schools were established.

with foreigners. When the French brethren of the Mission Apostolique, of Paris, came to Nagasaki, in 1860, they found in the villages around them over ten thousand people who held the faith of their fathers of the seventeenth century.

The Japanese mental constitution and moral character have been profoundly modified in turn by Shintoism, Buddhism and Confucianism, but the early waves of Christianity that passed over Japan left no sediment teeming with the fertility, rather a barren waste like that which the river floods leave in autumn. The leaven has been at work, however, and the indications are that the Christianity of the present will bring about a revolution in faith and moral practice.

CHAPTER IX.

ANCIENT RUSSIA

Her Early Domain—Good and Bad Rulers—When Converted to Christianity—Vladimir, a Great Name in Russian History—Wholesale Baptism—Translation of Holy Scriptures—Destruction of Kief—The Hanseatic League—Moscow.

THE Russian empire is comparatively young. It is practically a modern structure in its political composition.

It is a medley of many peoples. This is quite as true of the Tsar's empire as of Great Britain, but the geographical solidity of Russia might deceive the casual observer in the one case, whereas the vast dominions of Edward VII., being scattered to the four corners of the earth, are obviously of different tongues and complexions.

So it is with Russia. The Tsar's subjects embrace the fair-haired nations of the Baltic, the wild Cossacks of the Don, the Turcoman races of the mountain regions to the south of the Caspian, Kurds, Kalmucks, Mongols, Eskimos, and all the tribes that stretch from the Ural eastward to the Pacific without name and without number. We have, therefore, to consider an ethnological conglomerate.

The Scourge of the Steppes.

The ancients knew very little about what is now Russia in Europe. The Greeks had colonies and factories about the shores of the Black Sea, but they never made much headway toward a knowledge of the country. The people were called Scythians and some were known to be farmers and established in settlements along the Dnieper River, while others were nomads. The headquarters of such government as they had seems to have been in the vicinity of the Azof Sea.

A little later we find a Greeco-Scythian state on the Bosphorus, while the cities of Olbia and Chersonesos exercised a civilizing influence

upon the barbarians to the north. The Chersonese of the Greeks corresponded to the modern Crimea.

When the power of Rome rose and became heir to the Greek conquests in Asia, the wild Scythian was a source of constant trouble. Many a time Rome's legions were put to the test to keep this scourge of the steppes on their own side of the Danube and away from the Mediterranean. One wave after another of Asiatic tribes pressed westward—everywhere a catastrophe. They were nomadic nations of widely different races, which rolled into Europe one after the other.

One of these movements resulted in the founding of the vast empire in eastern Scythia by the Goths under Hermaneric. They were driven out and overthrown by a cloud of Finnish people, Avars, Bulgarians, Magyars and Khazars, who followed upon the heels of the Huns. In the midst of this melee the Slavs came to the front and appeared in history under their proper name.

Rurik the Peacemaker.

The seat of the Roman empire, having now in the fourth century been established at Constantinople, a struggle between the Romans and the Greeks on the one hand, and the barbarians on the other, ensued for the mastering of the Balkan peninsula.

We may pass over a long series of more or less mythical and unimportant semi-savage wars and migrations until we approach the historic period when the Slavs began to take a national name and form, under the name of Russians, a word which comes from the appellation of one of their tribes known as the Russ or Rossani.

In the midst of dissension and rebellious faction we find a noted Varangian chief, Rurik, who appears upon the scene as peacemaker, with the result that he restored quiet, suppressed factions, made himself master of the country and laid the foundations of the Russian empire. After a reign of fifteen years and a career of victorious conquest Rurik died, leaving his infant empire to his son Igor, who was a child and whose crown was kept for him by a kinsman named Oleg, who assumed the reins of power in the year 879.

The Throne Held in Trust.

Oleg existed only for the aggrandizement of his country, which he sought to accomplish without scruple, so far as means to his end were concerned. He had but one purpose at heart, and that was to make a greater Russia. He was a tyrant, a soldier and brute.

His capital was at Novgorod, called "The Great," but as he observed that the city of Kief had a milder climate and was farther advanced in civilization, he decided to move.

There was a little difficulty in the way, because it did not belong to his dominions, being under the rulership of another family of princes. He resolved to remove them from his path. Under a pretense of making a treaty, he drew them into an ambuscade and, capturing them, had them put to death. Proud of this nefarious crime, he issued a proclamation in which he declared, "Let Kief henceforth be the mother of all Russian cities." In accordance with his words it remained the capital of the empire for three hundred and fifty years.

Igor Comes to His Own.

Oleg died in 912 A. D., having reigned thirty-three years, during which time he had greatly enlarged and consolidated the government. At his death his kinsman, Igor, who seems to have simply looked on up to that point, succeeded to the crown. He was nearly forty years of age at the time he came to his father's throne. He appears to have been a well-meaning man, but as might have been expected from the fact that he allowed Oleg to hold the government so long, he proved to be an inefficient sovereign.

Fortunately, he was married and his wife, Olga, was a woman of more than ordinary ability. She was likewise ambitious, and poor Igor seems to have been little else than her husband. What was done for Russia during this reign she seems to have been responsible for, and at Igor's death, in 945, she became regent. Their young son and heir, not being yet fitted for the responsibilities of government, Olga took charge of public affairs with the dignity and title of Queen.

A Famous Character in History.

This woman is a favorite character in Russian story. Many old romances hung about her and many ballads were tuned to her praise. She is represented as having been a very beautiful peasant girl, whom Igor met while traveling through the country in disguise, and who managed to win her without disclosing his true rank. It was during her reign that Russia became Christian, she being the first sovereign to renounce paganism.

She publicly embraced Christianity at Constantinople, being baptized into the Greek-Catholic church. The country at that time, however, would not accept Christianity and Queen Olga's efforts were unavailing. The people clung tenaciously to their old idols, and the stone gods of the ancient Scythians were still worshipped. The chief of the Russian deities was called Perune and about this divinity hung all sorts of grotesque superstitions to which the people were wedded.

Queen Olga's heir and son, Sviatoslav, to his mother's grief and disgust, remained a true pagan. He was a chivalrous and valiant prince, however, and the idol of his army. He was emphatically a soldier monarch, succeeding to the crown in the year 957. He was ever at the front with his forces, whose dangers and privations he shared, living in all respects like the humblest soldier in the ranks. He won fame as a sovereign in war and conquest, and, under his administration, Russia grew in territory and power. At his death, however, which occurred in the year 972, there was a war over the succession.

A Celebrated Sovereign.

He had three sons who fought for the crown. In 980, Vladimir, a great name in Russian history, the youngest of the brothers, gained the sole dominion. He made Russia Christian; he undertook a careful investigation of all known religions, he conferred with learned men and received those doctors of divinity who had made theology a profession; he consulted Monks, Buddhists, Brahmins and expounders of various other doctrines, taking ample time and no end of trouble in the enquiry.

He finally accepted Christianity and forthwith abolished paganism and ordered his people to the rivers to be baptized and, according to the stories which have come down to us, he caused his words to be obeyed and his subjects proceeded by thousands to carry out the order. It is said that thirty thousand were baptized into the Greek church upon the same day as their sovereign, who received, when he was christened, the name Basilius.

Out of compliment to the young sovereign, who had thus embraced the true faith, the Greek emperor gave his daughter Anne in marriage to his brother of Russia, and henceforth the country belonged to the patriarchate of Constantinople, and Kief became the cathedral city of the Russian empire.

The Heroic Epoch of Russia.

Under this reign the idols were destroyed, churches were built, learning and the arts were cultivated. This regime is considered the heroic epoch of Russia. It was the age of poetic enthusiasm, with "Sunny Prince Vladimir" as the topic of the minstrel, who sang the glory of his reign. Historians have called Vladimir "The Great," because of his superiority over those who had gone before him, and because of his conspicuous brilliancy in the rude age in which he lived.

It is shocking to note, however, that this "Saint" Vladimir, as the Russians called him, with all of his greatness and chivalric qualities, murdered his brother and was a polygamist. Wise as was this monarch in statecraft, in his death he made a great blunder in disposing of the government by dividing the empire among his seven sons. By so doing other divisions followed, until finally Russia, which had been unified and solidified by the efforts of centuries, was torn to shreds.

Its power was frittering away; its political importance disappeared, and the people were re-plunged into barbarism, from which they were just emerging. Long and sanguinary wars ensued among the rival brothers and their partisans, until finally, in 1026, Jaroslov and Matislas made amicable arrangement to rule jointly, which they did for ten years, when his brother having died, Jaroslov assumed sole control of the shapeless colossus which the empire had become.

Jaroslov the Wise.

This monarch is honored in Russian annals by a surname, "The Wise." He is also sometimes called "The Great," quite a common appellation for Russian sovereigns, at least among Russians. This ruler seems to have been a student. He had a taste for making laws and he prepared a code for the settlement of disputes among his subjects upon recognized principles of right and wrong.

He first established schools quite generally, and, although himself a stout adherent of the Greek church, he suffered no persecutions for the sake of religion. He caused the Holy Scriptures to be translated into the Russian tongue, and is said to have transcribed several copies with his own hand, for it will be remembered that he died just five hundred years before Gutenberg had begun to print. As might have been expected from a man given to letters and the law, he was a good politician and arranged marriages for the members of his family with a view to the dynastic value of the alliances.

His sister became Queen of Poland, and his three daughters, Queens of Norway, France and Hungary respectively. For his sons he selected wives who were Greek, German and English princesses. This sovereign, also, following the example of his father, divided up the realm among his five sons. He died in 1054, and his last act in the division of the country proved equally disastrous as in the previous case, his five sons fighting against each other to the bitter end, and in turn leaving similar quarrels to their own posterity.

Famous in Politics and Peace.

During the next hundred and eighty years Russia was ruled by no less than seventeen princes and the country made little progress, no name being conspicuous among them until we come to Vladimir 2nd, surnamed Monomachus, who ruled from 1113 to 1126. He was crowned in 1114 and stands out in history as a great genius in an age of darkness and barbarism.

He waged no wars but those which the safety and the integrity of

his country demanded. His greatness was not demonstrated so much upon the field of battle as in the arts of politics and peace. No stain rests upon his character. On his death bed, like the late General Grant, he wrote the record of his life, which he interspersed with much good advice and wise counsel for his children and his successors. He exhorted his followers to be fathers to the orphans and judges for the widow. He was opposed to capital punishment, saying, "Put to death neither the innocent nor the guilty, for nothing is more sacred than the life and the soul of a Christian. Praise God and love men. It is neither fasting nor solitude, nor monastic vows that can give you eternal life but beneficence alone."

War Over the Succession.

This prince had come to the throne practically by vote of the people, not being in direct succession, and having twice refused the crown bequeathed to him by the dying king. It seems that he finally took it only to save the country from fratricidal strife and ruin. He reigned thirteen years with signal success and was succeeded by chaos.

There were two branches of his family which engaged in bloody war over the succession. His first wife was Gyda, daughter of Harold, the last Saxon king of England. Mstislas, the son of this marriage, succeeded to the throne. He inherited the virtues of both parents, and in a brief reign of six years carried out the wise and pacific policy of his father, but his rule was too short, unfortunately, and, upon his death in 1132, the struggles between the warring factions at the head of the various principalities had full swing. In the course of thirty-two years eleven princes grasped the sceptre, each holding it only until another more powerful wrested it from his hands.

Moscow Assumes Importance.

The Poles, taking advantage of the distracted state of affairs, invaded the empire on the one hand, while the Tartars swept out of Asia and overrun the country from the east. In the midst of the struggle, Kief, "the Mother of Cities," was destroyed, being given over to pillage by the forces of the princes of Moscow and Gallitch. With the warring

parties one capital after the other arose to pre-eminence. Upon the destruction of Kief, Moscow began to assume new importance. Novgorod, always a seat of power of greater or less magnitude, likewise had its ups and downs.

The Institutions of Novgorod.

In considering the early history of Russia, Novgorod deserves more than a passing mention. From the most remote antiquity this city was the political center of Northwest Russia, and from her location had a character of people and institutions peculiar to herself and quite independent of Eastern Russia in many particulars. Her character was Gothic rather than Asiatic, or Tartar. While her people seem to have possessed an insatiable hankering after a prince, the government was in reality a republic, in some points resembling that of the free cities of Germany during the first half of the nineteenth century.

According to tradition her foundations were laid by the Slavs of the Ilmen, whose origin is uncertain, some authorities holding that they came from tribes originally situated in the South, while others maintaining that they were Slavs of the Baltic from the earliest antiquity. At any rate, we find the Novgorodians at the opening of Russian history at the head of a confederation of tribes which exercised a powerful influence upon the course of events, and which was able by its strength to protect itself from many of the calamities which befell other capitals, notably Kief.

Resembled a Modern City.

From very ancient times the city was divided into two parts, separated by the course of the Volkhof which rises in Lake Ilmen and empties into the Ladoga. On the right bank was the side of St. Sophia, where Jaroslov built the celebrated cathedral, and where the Kremlin was located, enclosing both the palaces of the archbishop and the movable prince. This is the site of the famous Russian monument which was consecrated in 1862. On the left bank of the river was the side of commerce, the two parts of the city being united by a grand bridge, often celebrated in the annals of Novgorod.

It is noticeable that the city was composed of certain quarters, in each of which dwelt respectively separate nationalities or trades, just as in ancient Rome, Pompey, after he conquered the Samnites, brought them to the capital and planted them across the Tiber between the river and the Janiculum hill, a division which retains its character to the present day, under the name of The Trastevere. To-day there is the "Ghetto," the quarter of Jews, and in Paris we find the "Latin Quarter," and in London and New York the great "East Side" settlements, where races and classes find a congenial home in a colony within the city. So in Novgorod we find allusions to the quarters of the Prussians, the Slavs, the porters, the carpenters and so on.

A Population of One Hundred Thousand.

Gilbert of Lannoy, who visited the republic about 1413, has left a description of it, in the course of which he says, describing the city of his day, "Novgorod is a prodigiously large town situated in a beautiful plain in the midst of vast forests. The soil is low, subject to inundations, and marshy in places. The town is surrounded by imperfect ramparts, formed of gabions; the towers are of stone."

Portions of these fortifications alluded to above still exist, by which we are able to form some idea of the immense extent of the ancient city. She seems to have had within her walls at least one hundred thousand people, while within her domains, which stretched northward to Lapland and eastward to the Ural mountains and northeast into Siberia, she could not have had less than three hundred thousand subjects.

Elected Their Ruler.

These rude republicans were governed by a burgomaster or mayor, but at the same time they always desired a prince, whom they selected from the large stock constantly on hand throughout the empire. The crown, however, was firmly held in check, and whenever the people tired of their nominal ruler they simply discharged him and selected a successor. In the meantime the city took little part in the wars which

raged between rival factions, being too strong to make attack safe and caring little for the turbulent questions which disturbed the Russians of the far-away Dnieper.

The spirit of the place may be gathered from a tradition which has come down to us, to the effect that when upon one occasion a grand prince of Kief proposed to place his son over them they sent a formal message advising his father that they would receive him, but unless he had a spare head he had better keep the young man at home.

It is curious to note that the power of a prince once chosen rested practically upon the fortunes of the political party which had selected him. It thus happened that when the opposing party grew too strong he was dethroned. In this particular we observe a resemblance between the position of the prince and that of the prime minister of a modern constitutional monarchy such as Great Britain or Italy.

From the circumstance that no dynasty of princes could firmly establish itself at Novgorod and no royal line be built up as the head of a military aristocracy of titled landholders, it follows that the republic kept her ancient liberties and customs intact under the short reigns of her elected monarchs. The town was more powerful than the prince, who reigned by virtue of a constitution which was the creation of the citizens. Each new monarch was compelled to obey the laws and observe the provisions of this constitution, which was devised to limit the power of the princes and protect the rights of the people.

Various Classes of Society.

From a social point of view the constitution of Novgorod somewhat resembled that of Poland. Great inequality then existed between the different classes of society. There was an aristocracy which, while not depending upon the crown but rather of it, was extremely arrogant and powerful. First there was a sort of political nobility called the Boyards, whose intestine quarrels constantly agitated the city. Then came a kind of inferior nobility; then the different classes composed of the merchants, laborers and artisans, and, last of all, the peasants of the rural districts.

The merchants formed an association of their own, a sort of guild, around the Church of St. John. Military societies also existed—bands of independent adventurers who sometimes made independent forays afar on the great rivers of northern Russia, engaging in indiscriminate pillage or establishing military colonies among the Finnish tribes.

The soil of Novgorod was sandy, marshy and unproductive, a circumstance which led to periodical famines and pestilences, resulting in great loss of population. These conditions also compelled Novgorod to extend itself in order to live, and she therefore became perforce a commercial and colonizing city.

Thus we see them exchanging iron and weapons for the precious metal found in the mines of the Urals and making their way around the cataracts of the Dnieper to the mouth of the river, spreading themselves over all the shores of the Greek empire. They traded also with the Baltic Slavs and with the Germans. When the latter began to dispute the commerce of the Baltic with the Scandinavians, Novgorod became the seat of a German depot.

The vicious commercial instinct which is so conspicuous in the Teutonic race to-day seems to have been just as marked in the early times when the Germans first got a foothold in Novgorod, in the twelfth century.

The Germans in Control.

When the Hanseatic League became the mistress of the North we find the Germans in absolute control of commerce. They obtained considerable privileges, even the right to acquire pasture land. They fortified their depots with stockades of thick planks, where no Russians had the right to penetrate without their leave. This German trading company was governed by the most narrow and exclusive ideas.

No Russian was allowed to belong to the company, nor to carry the wares of a German, an Englishman or a Fleming. The company only authorized a wholesale trade, and to maintain her goods at a high price. She forbade imports beyond a certain amount.

During three centuries this league concentrated in her own hands all the external commerce of northern Russia, with the result that

Novgorod and her sister city, Pskof, were deprived of free commerce with the West, abandoned to the good pleasure and pitiless egotism of the German merchants.

But while Novgorod and Northern Russia, of which she was the center, fell under the commercial sway of the Germans, and finally was obliged to bow the knee to Moscow, the church had steadily grown in power and at length became thoroughly established throughout the north.

The Ecclesiastical Forces.

The church constitution of Russia presents some special features. In the rest of the empire the clergy was Russian Orthodox, but at Novgorod it was Novgorodian. It was not until the twelfth century that the Baltic Slavs, who had been the last to abandon paganism, were allowed to have an archbishop who was neither from Constantinople or Kief. From this time forward, however, their chief ecclesiastic was one of their own race, elected by the citizens.

He was at once installed in his Episcopal palace, without waiting approval from the head of the Russian church, and at once became the chief personage of the republic. In public acts and proclamations his name was always placed ahead of that of the prince and burgomaster.

Thus we have essentially a national church which lasted so long as Novgorod maintained its pre-eminence, and the Archbishop of St. Sophia was one of the grand dignitaries of Europe, while his revenues would suffice the treasury of a kingdom. But with a rise of the Muscovite princes, the Novgorodian church naturally became subject to that of Russia in general, whose patriarch has been established at Constantinople.

We have thus reviewed hastily the beginnings of Russia, with a glance at its chief personages and a sketch of the racial, ecclesiastical and commercial forces which have worked together for the development of society under civilized conditions, and which combined to prepare a foundation for the vast fabric which was subsequently to be erected upon it.

CHAPTER X.

MEDIAEVAL RUSSIA

Russia's Historical Development—New Races of Men—The Tartar Invasion—Alexander Nevsky—Value of Diplomacy with Force—Mingling of Tartars with Russians—Blood Tax—The Mongol Yoke—The Rise and Fall of Lithuania—Shares the Fate of Poland.

DURING the twelfth and thirteenth centuries a series of three great invasions occurred which were destined to modify the historical development of Russia, and three new races of men were to make themselves felt for all time upon the nation. The Russians of the Northwest were destined to become Germanized, while Russia of the East and South made the acquaintance of the Tartar-Mongols, and Western Russia with the Lithuanians.

The Evolution of a Race.

Lithuania, if we may name a country from its people, was a not very clearly defined region of central Europe. It extended from the southeastern shore of the Baltic sea between the mouth of the river Vistula and the Duna southward through a region now comprised within modern Prussia, parts of Poland and the Western Russian province. The region consisted, in a great part, of a flat, marshy, wooded country, with many lakes. These people were divided into tribes, and they continue under various names to occupy the same territory in which they lived at the beginning of history. Their origin is unknown. Their principal branch has given its name to modern Prussia.

The Livonians were a tribe also living upon the Baltic farther to the north and were of Finnish origin. This region was considered by the Russian princes and republics of the northwest as subject to their dominion. A son of Vladimir, Monomachus, had conquered a portion

of the territory, but German merchants and Latin missionaries appeared upon the shores of the Baltic, even pressing toward the north and east, and the country fell temporarily under the influence of the Church of Rome.

The monk, Meinhard, sent by the Archbishop of Bremen, converted the Livonians, and was created Bishop of Livonia, but under the cloak of Christianity the Germans really brought to the Baltic tribes the ruin of their national independence. The German merchant and the German missionary came together, and the apostle Meinhard built a church and a fortress at Uexkull in 1187. From this day these tribes lost their lands and their liberty, and soon saw to what this mission was leading. They rose against the missionaries, and, in 1198, the Bishop of Livonia lost his life on the battlefield. The natives returned to their pagan gods and plunged into the Dwina to wash off the baptism which they had received.

The Sword Bearers.

Pope Innocent III., hearing the direful news of what had happened in the north, preached a crusade against them, and Albert of Buxhewden, their third bishop, and the father of German authority in Livonia, appeared upon the scene with a fleet of twenty-three ships and built the town of Riga, which became his capital in the year 1200. Next year he installed the order of the Brothers of the Army of Christ, or the "Sword-Bearers," to whom the bishop gave the statutes of the Templars. They wore a white mantle with a red cross on the shoulders. Most of these knights were Westphalians and Saxons; Vinno Rohrbach was their first Grand Master.

The Livonians, terrified at the impending crisis, appealed for help to the Princes of Polotsk, and marched bravely to attack the crusaders at Riga and suffered signal defeat. This was in the year 1206. The Princes of Polotsk, however, came upon the field and laid siege to the city during the absence of the bishop, but it was saved from capture by the timely arrival of a German fleet. There were various causes which led to the success of the "Knights of the Sword." In the first

place, the internal quarrels at Novgorod prevented this powerful city from watching over Russian interest as she should have done in keeping with her claims to power and dignity among Slavonian capitals.

Again the Princes of Polotsk, who came forward as the chief champions of the Livonians, were a weak set. Again many of the Slavonic tribes failed to do their duty against the invaders, on account of not having yet come to a realization of their proper relations to the nation as a whole.

Under German Authority.

The knights were also far superior in arms and military science. The German fortresses were solidly built of hewn stone, while those of the natives were simply rude pits, surrounded by earth and loose stones. While they showed ample bravery, they vainly tried with their rude appliances to pull down the walls and palisades of the invaders.

A little later the "Sword Bearers" assumed the offensive and pushed farther, by a series of campaigns, into the Russian country. They defeated the Livonians and Semgalli of the Dwina, the Tchouds of the north and the Letts to the southeast. If a tribe declined baptism and submission it was delivered over to destruction by fire and sword. When it submitted, hostages were taken, fortified castles were built upon commanding places in its territory, or old fortresses were rehabilitated under German occupancy. In this manner Riga, Kircholm, Creuzburg and other strongholds were built on the Dwina, and Neuhausen, Wolmar, Wenden, Kremon, Fellin, and Weissenstein, among other important places, were established in various parts of the conquered territory.

In the North, Kolyvan, the modern Revel, was purchased from the King of Denmark to the intense outrage of the Finnish pride, because it was the site of the grave of the chief hero of their mythology. The country was divided into counties, some of which belonged to the order of the "Sword Bearers," by whom they were distributed among the knights, and the rest fell to the share of the Archbishop. The new towns received constitutions like the merchant cities of Lubeck, Bremen and Hamburg, the chief of which was Riga.

FLOATING BLACKSMITH SHOP

AN ARTILLERY CAMP

HOSPITAL SUPPLIES

WAITING FOR ORDERS

SCENES OF RUSSIAN ARMY LIFE IN MANCHURIA

From photographs taken by the author, J. Martin Miller.

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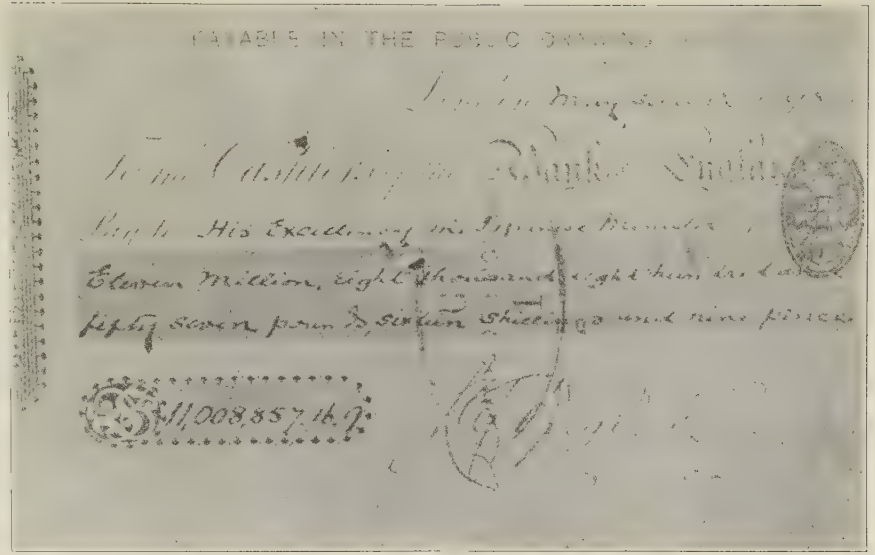
JAPANESE TRANSPORTATION METHODS.

The pack saddle consists of two padded sides joined by an iron arch. The packages are tied to or hung upon the saddle.

JAPANESE INFANTRY ON THE MARCH.

The advance of the Japanese army toward Liaoyang was a complete success. It deceived the enemy and filled him with a doubt as to the true direction of attack.



THE LARGEST CHECK EVER DRAWN.

China decided to make a single payment of its war indemnity to Japan, instead of paying it in annual installments, and a check for nearly twelve million pounds (reproduced above) was forwarded to the Japanese Government.

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COUNTESS CASSINI.

Daughter of the Russian Ambassador.

Copyright, 1904, by Clinedinst

MADAME TAKAHIRA.

Wife of the Japanese Minister.

UNITED STATES MILITARY ATTACHES.

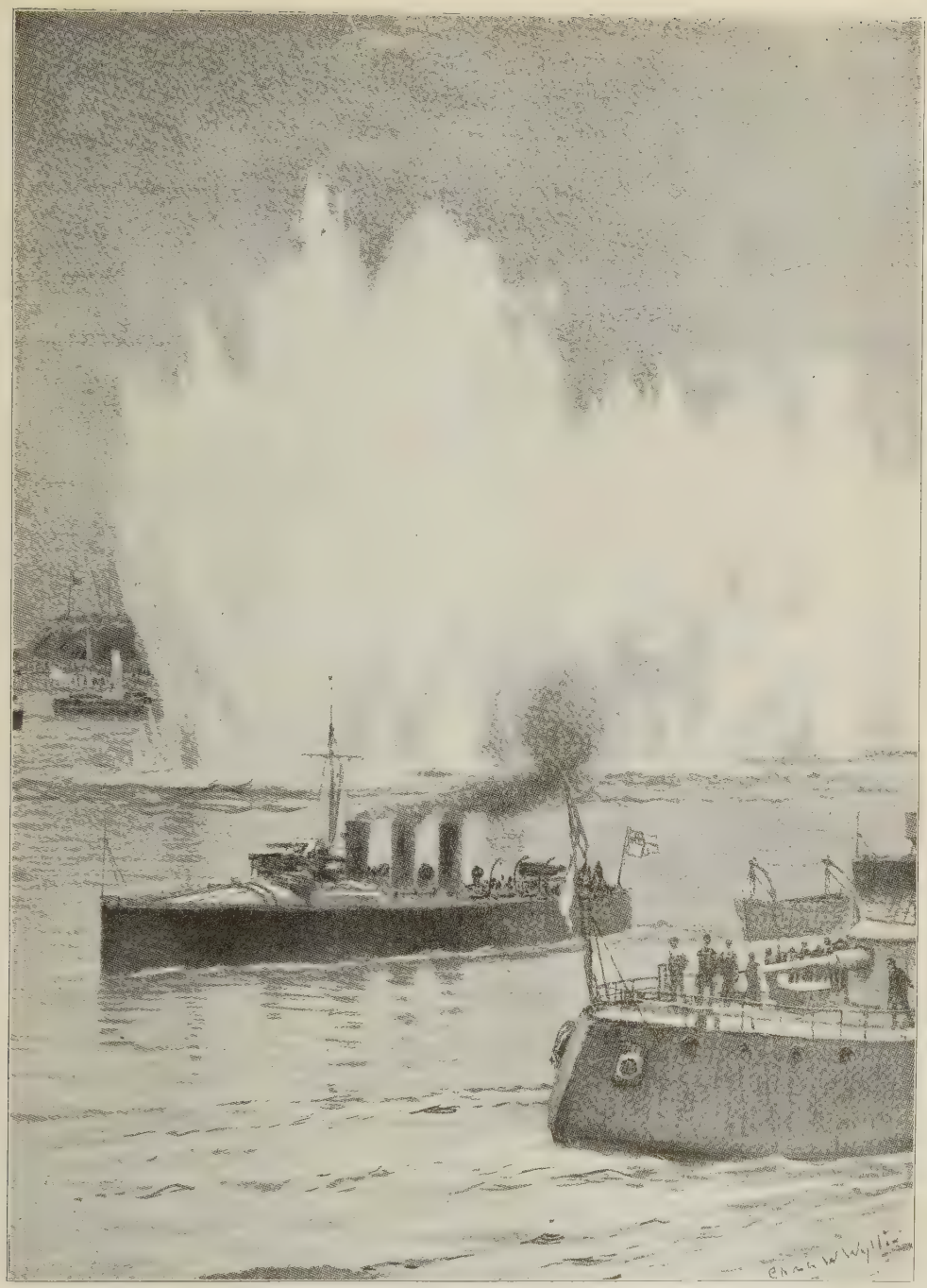
1. Brig. Gen. Henry T. Allen, Chief of Constabulary, Philippine Islands.
2. Col. John B. Kerr, General Staff, U. S. Army.
3. Lieut.-Col. Oliver E. Wood, Military Attache, Tokio, Japan.
4. Captain Carl Reichman, 17th Infantry.
5. Captain Andre W. Brewster, 9th Infantry.
6. Capt. Seaton Schroeder, U. S. N., Chief Intelligence Officer.
7. Captain J. E. Kuhn, Corps of Engineers.
8. Capt. Wm. V. Judson, Engineer of Corps, U. S. A.
9. Major W. D. Beach, 10th Cavalry, Chief Bureau Military Intelligence.

MR. KOGORO TAKAHIRA
Japanese Minister.

MR. MINHUI CHO
Korean Minister.

COUNT CASSINI
Russian Ambassador.

SIR CHEN TUNG LIANG-CHENG
Chinese Minister and the members of his Embassy.



EXPLOSION OF A MINE AT PORT ARTHUR

The effectiveness of the submarine mine was thoroughly demonstrated in the Russian-Japanese war. The above illustration depicts the explosion of one of these deadly instruments of destruction during the famous attack which marked the beginning of hostilities.

THE NAVAL BATTLE AT CHEMULPO

The destruction of the Russian cruisers Variag and Korietz, at Chemulpo, was the first real Japanese victory of the war. It was a most dramatic battle. The two Russian boats, with bands playing, steamed out of the harbor and went into action with apparently no thought of the odds against them. They were totally disabled.

Still the invaders had troubles of their own. The Archbishop of Riga and the Grand Master of the Order often quarreled over their respective rights, and thus was laid the foundation for dissensions destined to bring about the decline of the institution.

The Inhabitants Become Serfs.

About the year 1225 another military brotherhood was established among the Prussian Lithuanians called the Teutonic Order, which built the cities of Thorn, Marienburg, Elbing and Koenigsberg. Their emblem was a black cross, and they appear always to have been friendly with the red cross knights, the object of both being, principally, plunder. The two orders united in 1237 and became one association, the grand master of the Teutonic Order taking precedence over all the others.

In the meantime the original Baltic tribes of Livonians, Letts and Finns became serfs, being attached to the land after the manner of the Saxons of England under the Norman conquerors.

The Tartar Invasion.

The thirteenth century was signalized in Russian history by a greater event than any which had preceded it. This was the Tartar invasion. The country was overrun and subjugated by Asiatic hordes. This fatal event contributed quite as much as the disadvantage of soil and climate to retard her development by many centuries.

Writing of this catastrophe the Russian chronicler says: "In those times there came upon us for our sins unknown nations. No one could tell their origin, whence they came, what religion they professed. God alone knows who they were, God, and, perhaps, wise men learned in books."

The Asiatic invasion was a terror to the whole of Europe. The Russians bore the first shock of those mysterious foemen at whom the Pope leveled bulls, and who were reputed to be the Gog and Magog who were to come at the end of the world, when Antichrist was to overwhelm everything with the blast of destruction. The Tatas, or Tatars or Tartars, as they have been variously called, seem to have

been a tribe of the great Mongol race, dwelling in the highlands of Central Asia, who had frequently laid waste vast regions of China in the course of repeated invasions.

They were a nomadic people, by occupation shepherds, who wandered ceaselessly from one pasture to another and from river to river. They had no walled towns, and were unacquainted with writing and books. Their relations with other nations were governed by unstable oral treaties. They were reared from infancy on horseback and from childhood were at constant practice with the bow and the javelin.

In fact, from what we know of them, their history and character would apply tolerably well to the Sioux Indians of the United States. They had neither religious ceremonies nor judicial institutions. They were strictly carnivorous. The flesh and skins of their animals supplied them with the prime necessities of life. They had no respect for anything but force.

Customs and Methods of Warfare.

They had some social institutions particularly shocking to Europeans even in that age of uncertain morality. It was said that when the father of a family died his sons married his youngest wives. A Mussulman author furnishes us the information that they worshiped the sun and practiced polygamy and community of wives. The most important interest with them was the growing of grass, and they named their months according to the different aspects of the prairie. In war they used no infantry and were ignorant of the art of sieges.

A Chinese writer says: "When they wished to take a town they fell on the suburban villages. Each leader seizes ten men, and every prisoner is forced to carry a certain quantity of wood, stones and other materials. They use these for filling up moats or digging trenches. In the capture of a town the loss of ten thousand men was thought nothing. No place could resist them.

After a siege all of the population was massacred without distinction of old or young, rich or poor, beautiful or ugly, those who resisted or who yielded; no distinguished person escaped death if a defense was attempted."

Genghis Khan the Leader.

It was these hordes, first amalgamated and mobilized by the genius of Genghis-Khan, who terrified the continent from Pekin to the Crimea in the 13th century. Genghis-Khan, the evil genius of this race of marauders, was the son of a petty Mongolian prince born in Tartary in 1163. After much intestine warfare with various tribes this renowned conqueror was proclaimed Khan of the United Mongol people. He reorganized his army, made for himself a set of laws and prepared for a course of conquest to which he professed he had a divine call. In 1210 he first invaded China, the capital of which was taken by storm and plunder several years later.

He sent ambassadors to Turkestan and unfortunately they were murdered, which gave the Tartar despot an excuse for turning his conquests toward the West. He invaded this country in 1218 with an army said to comprise 700,000 men. He appeared in due time before the great cities of Bokhara and Samarcand, which were stormed, pillaged, burned, and more than 200,000 lives destroyed. He continued his operations for several years and in 1225, although more than sixty years old, he turned about and marched in person at the head of his army against Tangut, whose king had sheltered two of his enemies and refused to surrender them.

A great battle was fought on plains of ice formed by a frozen lake, in which the King of Tangut was totally defeated with a loss of, it is said, 300,000 men. His forces also overran Manchuria, all of Northern China, and when he died he left to his four sons the largest Empire that ever existed, except possibly that of Edward VII of Great Britain.

The Empire was divided into four parts, having been established by its founder at a cost, it has been said, of not less than 5,000,000 lives.

His death occurred in 1227, in the sixty-fourth year of his age, and the 52nd of his reign.

The Call to Arms.

It was during the campaign of Genghis-Khan against Bokhara that his lieutenants Tchepe and Souboudai-Bagadour turned toward the northwest, overrunning a multitude of peoples, and passing the Caspian

Sea by its southern shore, invaded Georgia and the Caucasus and in the southern steppes of Russia came in contact with the Slavic army. Their first contest was with the Polovosti, a tribe not yet Christianized, being upon the confines of Russia proper; but terrorized by the onward course of the Tartar hordes, they called upon the Christian princes for help.

Mstislas the Bold, at that time the Prince of Galitch, persuaded all the dynasties of Southern Russia to take up arms against the Tartars. His nephew, Daniel, the Prince of Volhynia, Mstislaf Romanovitch, the Grand Prince of Kief, Oleg of Korsk, the Prince of Tchernigof, Valdimir of Somelnsk, and Vsevolod at that time Prince of Novodlod, responded to his appeal. To make sure of his alliance with the Russians and as an evidence of sincerity in the common cause Basti the Prince of Polvostki joined the orthodox Russian Church. The Russian army had already arrived on the lower Dnieper when the Tartar ambassadors put in an appearance.

They are reported to have said "we come by God's command against our slaves and servants, the accursed Polovosti. Be at peace with us. We have no quarrel with you." The Russians promptly put the ambassadors to death.

Overwhelming Disaster.

They then advanced into the steppe and encountered the Asiatics on the Kalka, a small river running into the Sea of Azof. Unfortunately for the Christians, there was lack of a supreme commander who could hold in check the hot-headed princes from the various cities, each of whom desired to gain all the honors of the battle for himself; and thus disaster overwhelmed the whole.

As our own Custer, at the Litle Big Horn, thought he would rout the entire nation of Sioux warriors under Chief Gall and Sitting Bull without sharing the glory with anyone else, so Daniel of Galitch, Mstislas the Bold, and Oleg, each on his own account, drove headlong into the Tartar hosts, only to be swallowed up and annihilated with the flower of their chivalry. The combat had no sooner become general than the Polovosti were seized with a panic and fell back in confusion upon the Russian main army, throwing it into disorder.

A general rout was the inevitable result. As the valor of the intrepid Knights of France at Crecy and Poictiers wrought their own ruin, so the Russian princes had made an exhibition of bravery at fearful cost to their country. About nine-tenths of the Christian army were slaughtered, the Prince of Kief alone leaving ten thousand dead upon the field.

A Forlorn Hope.

The Grand Prince of Kief, Mstislas Romanovitch, had escaped and still occupied a fortified camp on the banks of the Kalka. Abandoned by the rest of the army he attempted still to make a brave defense. The Tartar leaders offered to make terms by the payment of a ransom for himself and his army. He capitulated, therefore, and the conditions were at once violated. His guard was massacred and he and his two sons-in-law were smothered to death, while the Tartars held a grand celebration over their dead bodies. This was in 1224. The Tartars did not at this time follow up their victory but returned toward the east, nothing more being heard of them.

For the next thirteen years while the Tartars were busy finishing up the conquest of China, the Russian princes turned to the cutting of each others throats, and certain princes of the north who had looked on while the southern brethren were slaughtered by the Asiatics were marked for punishment for their impious conduct. The Mongols were forgotten.

All sorts of disaster overwhelmed the country. There was famine and pestilence, incendiarism in the towns, and the people were further terrified in their superstition by the great comet of 1224 and the eclipse of the sun which occurrd in 1230.

A Brave Defiance.

In 1237 the Tartars came on again, led by Bati, the nephew of Oktai, one of the sons of Genghis-Khan. A Khirgiz tribe, falling back before the advancing hordes, took refuge in the land of the Bulgarians of the Volga, giving warning of the new irruption from Asia. This time it was not the South Russians who were immediately threatened by the Souzdal princes.

The Tartars swept on, overrunning the Volgas who, up to this time, had been the ancient enemies of Russia, but who now made common cause with her in her ruin by the Mongol hordes. Their chief city was given up to the flames and her inhabitants were put to the sword. The invaders moved westward into the forests of the Volga and sent envoys to the Princes of Riazan.

The three Princes of Riazan and those of Pronsk, Kolomna, Moscow and Moroum advanced to meet them.

"If you want peace," said the Tartars, "give us the tenth of your goods."

"When we are dead," replied the Russian princes, "you can have it all."

Although abandoned by the Princes of Tchernigof and the Grand Prince George II, of whom they had implored and anticipated help, the Princes of Riazan stoutly gave battle, resolving to accept the unequal struggle. They were completely defeated, nearly all of the princes being killed on the field of battle.

This unfortunate affair has furnished the romantic literature of Russia with many stories. It is told how Feodor preferred to die rather than see his young wife Euphrasia carried off a prisoner by Bati, and how on learning his fate, she threw herself and her son from a window. Oleg the Handsome, found still alive on the field of battle, refused the attentions of the Tartar chief and was cut to pieces.

The Tartars Everywhere Victorious.

Riazan was sacked after being taken by assault and all the towns of the principality met the same fate.

The Souzdalian Prince George now came forward and sent an army commanded by his son, who met the invaders at Kolomna on the Oka. The Tartars burned Moscow and then besieged the Vladimir on the Kaliazma, which George II had abandoned to seek help in the North. His two sons were charged with the defense of the capital. The princes and knights of the aristocratic houses, certain that there was no alternative but death or slavery, prepared to fight to the end.

The women and the nobles prayed the Bishop to give them the tonsure and when the Tartars pushed into the town by all its gates the conquered Russians, fighting to the last, fell back into the cathedral, where they were slaughtered, men, women and children, in the midst of a general conflagration. Fourteen towns and a multitude of villages in the grand principality were given over to the flame by the end of the year 1238.

The Tartar commander then went to seek the Grand Prince himself who was encamped on the Sit, almost on the frontier of the possessions of Novgorod. He in turn was defeated with the same dire story of blood and disaster which had marked the course of the Asiatics from the beginning.

The Tartars now advanced upon Novgorod itself, but here at last the elements combined to aid the hard-pressed Russians and, baffled by swollen rivers and endless marshes, the invaders turned back to the southeast when fifty miles away from the ancient capital.

The Tartars then spent two years, 1239 and 1240, in ravaging Southern Russia, burning Pereiaslaf and Tchernigof in spite of desperate defense by the Russian princes.

The Sack of Kief.

Next Mangou, a grandson of Genghis-Khan, marched against Kief. From the left bank of the Dnieper the barbarian beheld the great city on the heights on the opposite side towering over the wide river with her white walls and towers built like a lesser Constantinople. The city contained innumerable churches with domes, shining with gold and silver.

It is said that even the savage leaders hesitated at the devastation of so beautiful a place, and proposed capitulation, but the fate of the capitals of other powerful principalities filled the people with apprehension and they hesitated as to the best course to pursue. Still they had the temerity to put to death Mangou's ambassadors. Michael, their grand prince, fled, and his rival, Daniel of Galitch, followed suit.

Upon receiving the report of Mangou, Bati, the chief commander, came in person to the assault of Kief with the bulk of his army.

A Russian annalist, speaking of this event, says: "The grinding of the wooden chariots, the bellowing of the buffaloes, the cries of the camels, the neighing of the horses, the howlings of the Tartars rendered it impossible to hear your own voice in the town."

The invaders assailed the Polish gate and knocked down the walls with battering rams. The Kievans supported by Dimitri, a famous Gallician knight, defended the breach to nightfall, and then retreated to one of the principal churches which they surrounded by palisades.

Here the last remnant, gathered round the tomb of Jaroslaf, perished the next day. The Tartar commander spared the life of the gallant leader of the city's defenders, but the next day the "Mother of Russian cities" was sacked for the third time in its history.

Even the tombs were rifled. St. Sophia and the Monastery of the Catacombs were delivered over to be plundered. This disaster occurred in the year 1240.

Sent into Captivity.

All of Russia practically, had now been devastated except Volhynia and Gallicia and Novgorod in the Northwest. The two former soon fell under the Tartar yoke, and hundreds of thousands of Russians were dragged into captivity. The Russian Chronicle of the day says, "men saw wives of the aristocrats who had never known work, who, a short time before, had been clothed in rich garments, adorned with jewels and collars of gold, surrounded with slaves, now reduced to be themselves slaves of barbarians and their wives, turning the wheel of the mill and preparing their coarse food."

Karminsin, the Russian historian, in reviewing the causes which led to the complete defeat of the Russian nation, says: "Though the Tartars were not more advanced from a military point of view than the Russians, who had made war in Greece and in the West against the most warlike and civilized people of Europe, yet they had to face an enormous superiority in numbers. Bati had with him probably not less than 500,000 warriors. This immense army moved like one man. It could successfully annihilate the successive forces of the princes or the militia of the towns which only presented themselves piecemeal to its

blows. The Tartars had found Russia divided against herself as the result of the fatal policy of Vladimir the Great, who had erected the principalities. Even though Russia had wished to form a solid confederation, the certain irruption of an army entirely composed of horsemen did not leave her time.

Flushed with Victory.

In the tribes ruled by Bati every man was a soldier, while in Russia the nobles and citizens alone bore arms, while the peasants who formed the bulk of the population allowed themselves to be stabbed or bound without resistance. It was not a weak nation by which Russia was conquered.

The Tartar-Mongols under Ghengis-Khan had filled the East with the glory of their name, and subdued nearly all Asia. They arrived, proud of their exploits, animated by the recollection of a hundred victories and reinforced by numerous peoples whom they had vanquished and hurried with them to the west.

The Princes of Galitch, Volhymia and Kief fled, fugitives to Poland and Hungary, and all Europe was terror-stricken with the news they brought. The Pope of Rome, whose support had been claimed by the Prince of Galitch, summoned all Christendom to arms.

Louis IX prepared for a crusade. Frederick II, as Emperor, wrote to the sovereigns as follows: "This is the moment to open the eyes of body and soul, now that the brave princes on whom we reckoned are dead or in slavery."

The Tartars invaded Hungary and gave battle to the Poles at Liegnitz in Silesia. Their onward march was arrested for a considerable time by the defense of Olmutz in Moravia and finally stopped, they learning that a large army under the King of Bohemia and the Dukes of Austria and Corinthia was advancing to meet them.

Effect upon Russian History.

The report of the death of Oktai, the second Emperor of the United Tartars, recalled Bati from the west, and in retracing his steps his huge army necessarily wasted away to a great extent. They had found the

broken country of Central Europe more difficult than the plains of Russia, and a foe better organized and better equipped, while led by Christian knights of the most distinguished valor. They had fought disorganized Russians at the Kalka, at Kolomna and at the Sit, but the Poles, Silesians, Bohemians and Moravians, whom they met at Liegnitz and Olmutz had not been such easy prey. The consequence was that only in Russian history did the invasion produce great results. The chief result was to give a taint of the Tartar character to Russia henceforth.

When Bati had fallen back to the lower Volga he built a city called Sarai, which he made the capital of a Tartar Empire which he called the Golden Horde, whose territories extended from the Ural and the Caspian to the mouth of the Danube. Within its confines he embraced not only the Tartar tribes but all the survivors of the invasion together with various Turkish nations who began to lose their nomadic character and to settle in a fixed abode. The first three successors of Genghis-Khan were recognized as the head of this new Empire until 1260, when the Golden Horde became an independent state.

About this time the Tartars, who had been pagans when they entered Russia, embraced the faith of Islam, and in 1273 were counted among its most formidable adherents.

A Noble Figure.

In the meantime through all the gloom and turmoil of Russian history, one figure loomed up as a great sovereign in the person of Alexander Nevsky. He made war upon the Swedes and Germans and Lithuanians who had fallen upon Western Russia tottering under the blow dealt by the Tartars. He began a policy of conciliation toward the Great Khan, making three journeys into Asia with this object in view. He came to the throne to find his country devastated with the Golden Horde in power in the South, while his Teutonic enemies pressed him on the west.

Alexander made his capital at Novgorod and was as brave as he was intelligent. He was the hero of the North, who, though so beset on every hand, managed to vanquish the Scandinavians and the Livonian

Knights, but he was compelled to make an obeisance at the feet of the Asiatic barbarians. He comprehended that in the presence of this immense and brutal force of Mongols, all resistance was madness. To brave them was to complete the overthrow of Russia. His conduct may not have been chivalrous but it was wise, politic and humane. The result was that through his management Novgorod was the only principality in Russia which kept its independence, and he gave the first lesson which has been followed by Russian monarchs down to the present day for dealing with the Asiatic by a combination of force, tempered by the wiles of diplomacy.

He went so far as to pay tribute to the great Khan as the price of freedom. This was done in the face of bitter opposition on the part of his people who resisted the Tartar impost, and while Alexander himself, overcoming his scruples, went to Sarai to prostrate himself before the Ruler of the Golden Horde, Providence smiled upon his arms by a signal victory over the Swedes.

A National Hero.

The health of Alexander broke down and he died upon his way home; his death being announced while the people were celebrating their victory. He at once became the national hero and it was recognized that by his victories over his enemies in the West he had at least given one glory to his country and had hindered her from despairing under the most cruel tyranny, material and moral, which the European people had ever suffered. His death occurred in 1262 in the midst of the darkest hour of national calamity, relieved only by his diplomacy on the one hand and his victories on the other.

The Mongol yoke, while heavy, had not suppressed altogether Russian institutions and, in fact, the Tartars did not introduce any direct political change. They left to each principality her laws, her courts of justice and her native chiefs, Andrew Bogolioubski continued to rule in Souzdal, and Daniel Romanovitch in Galitch, while the Olgovitches remained at the head of their people in Tchernigof. Novgorod, with its republican institutions, was allowed to continue to expel and recall

princes, and the dynasties of the South were left to fight over the throne of Kief.

The Russians found themselves in the position of a tributary nation with their own local government practically undisturbed. The people continued in possession of their lands on which their nomad conquerors encamped on the steppes, regarding such property with disdain. They cared only for herds of camels and buffalos, their droves of horses and flocks of goats. They wanted the grass but not the ground.

Origin of Muscovite Power.

The obligations of the vanquished races and their relations with their conquerors were limited by periodical acknowledgment of their submission and, when it suited the conqueror's pleasure, the opportunity of judging the merits of their disputes by their princes going not only to the Khan of the Golden Horde, but also frequently to the Grand Khan at the extremity of Asia on the Amoor. They met there the chiefs of the Mongol Tartar, Thibetan and Bokharian hordes and sometimes the Kaliph of Bagdad, or even legates of the Pope or the King of France. The Grand Khan held a high court where he tried to play off against each other these ambassadors from Europe who met to do him reverence. The insolent ambition of the Grand Khan knew no bounds. He desired at one time that the King of France should recognize him as Master of the World. This long road to the seat of the Mongol Empire was strewn with bones of ambassadors, and few who went ever returned.

The conquered people were obliged to pay a capitation tax which weighed as heavily upon the poor as on the rich. This tribute was paid either in money or in furs, or, if they refused, those who failed became slaves. To make matters worse the Khan for some time farmed out this revenue to merchants of Khiva who collected it with the utmost severity and who were protected by strong guards to put down revolts should the people prove obstinate.

Thus in 1264, in 1284, in 1318, in 1327, the inhabitants of various cities felt to their cost the heavy arm ready to strike them in case of any attempt at insurrection against the usurper. Later the princes of Mos-

cow themselves farmed not only the tax from their own subjects but also from the neighboring countries, becoming the farmers-general of the invaders; in fact, this was the origin of the power and riches of the Muscovite princes.

Mingling of the Races.

In addition to the tribute above mentioned, the Russians had to furnish to their master a blood tax in the shape of a military force and in the thirteenth century we find that the Russian princes furnished to the Tartars a solid infantry—an arm of service which the Tartars themselves did not possess, having been brought up solely as cavalrymen.

These contingents were even placed under the command of the princes themselves who were obliged to march at their head and take part in the expeditions of the Grand Khan against various tribes which rebelled against his sway in different parts of Asia upon the confines of his empire. Worse yet, these forces were often called upon to assist the Tartars to put down rebellious princes in Russia itself. Thus it will be seen the depths to which the Russian national pride was being humbled throughout half a dozen generations.

On the other hand the blood of the two races was in the meantime being mingled by matrimonial alliances, which became very common. In this respect the princes on both sides set the example to their subjects. The Asiatic shepherds, therefore, could not help being more or less influenced by Slavic manners, traditions and religion.

Thus the fierce penalties by flogging, mutilation or death at the stake, which the Asiatics brought to Europe, and, also, such arts and customs as they found in Russia became common to a great extent to the mingled progeny of the conquerors and their subjects.

Still the two races did not become thoroughly unified, and, in many particulars, continued to the end of the Mongolian conquest to be entirely separate from each other in the matter of social habits and religious opinions. This arises chiefly, no doubt, from the fact that while the Russians continued to be Christians, the pagans instead of accepting their faith were gradually becoming Mohammedans.

The Lithuanian Conquest.

The picture of Russia at this period would not be complete without a glance at the Lithuanian conquest, reaching into the 15th century. These people of very early Persian origin had been badly broken up by successive conflicts with the Germans, but they had maintained themselves throughout the turmoil of the dark ages, until, finally, at the beginning of the thirteenth century, they had been united through the influence of a prince named Minvog, who had come to power through the usual process of the extermination of his rivals.

Encouraged by the Mongol invasions he made war upon Western Russia until stopped as we have seen before, by Alexander Nevsky, who saved Novgorod from the Asiatics on the one hand and the Lithuanians on the other. Defeated by this great prince, he had appealed to the Pope and secured the assistance of the Teutonic knights. He embraced Christianity and was consecrated King of Lithuania. The danger passed, Rome was forgotten and the country fell back into anarchy under his descendants. The real founder of her power rose in the early part of the fourteenth century under Gedimin and he turned the exhaustion and division to his profit. He attacked Tchernigof and Volhynia, defeating the Russians aided by an auxiliary of Tartars, in 1321. Kief soon after soon fell under his power although it is not certain in what year this occurred, the annals of this age of universal disorder not being clear.

Whatever the exact date may have been this ancient city was destined to remain for four hundred years, or down to the time of Alexis Romanoff, in the hands of strangers.

A New Master.

The Russian population willingly received this new master who would free them from the heavy yoke of the Mongols, and never-ending civil wars. As he respected their internal constitution and the rights of the orthodox clergy it appears that many towns readily opened their gates to him. Gedimin sought to realize his conquests by contracting alliances with the house of St. Vladimir, allowed his sons to embrace the ortho-

dox faith, and authorized the construction of Greek churches in his residences at Wilna and other seats.

He had a perpetual struggle to sustain himself in the North against his deadly enemies, the military monks of Prussia and Livonia, but, like his predecessors, he addressed himself to the Pope, John XXII, and informed him that he wished to preserve his independence and that he only asked protection for his religion, being surrounded by Franciscans and Dominicans to whom he gave full liberty to teach their doctrines. He promised also to recognize the Pope as the supreme head of the church if he would save him from the Germans. This Pope being a Frenchman lent ready assistance.

Dies a Pagan.

He had already been compelled, by the hostilities successfully waged by the Germans, to fall back to Wilna, where he established himself in a citadel and began by diplomacy to build around him a city as the seat of his strength.

By offering immunities to German artisans and by granting them the rights given to towns under the Hanseatic League he stimulated commerce; he also established a Russian quarter in his capital. However, in spite of his intimacy with the Pope he died and was buried according to pagan rites, his body being burned in a caldron with his horse and his favorite groom. After his death his sons Olgerd and Kestout deprived their two other brothers of their properties and dignities, and together governed Lithuania down to 1337. Olgerd was greatly incensed against Novgorod because one of his fugitive brothers had found asylum there and he ravaged her territory and forced her to put to death the burgomaster whom he charged with being the cause of the war. He extended his possessions to the East and South, becoming master of nearly all the valley of Dnieper, obtaining a footing on the coast of the Black Sea between the mouths of the Dnieper and Dniester.

The Passing of a Nation.

The Poles disputed with him for the possession of Volhynia, oppressing the orthodox faith and finally changing the Greek into Latin

churches. He even attempted the conquest of Moscow and had it not been that he was unable to shake off the Poles and the two German orders who constantly harassed him he might have made the conquest of Eastern Russia, having in 1368 annihilated the Mongol hordes of the lower Dnieper and completed the ruin of the Crimea. A succession of wars in which Russia was practically powerless was waged up to 1430, during which period the Lithuanian princes were the chief actors and the heads of the rival churches of Rome and Constantinople were participants in the struggle for ecclesiastical supremacy.

With this date Lithuania ceased to be a first-class power and it was by turn governed by a Grand Duke of its own, united with Poland, separated again, and finally placed under Polish rule in 1501. Henceforward it shared the fate of Poland, until, in modern times, its last trace as a political entity has disappeared by being inverted in the partition between Russia, Germany and Austria.

CHAPTER XI.

THE MUSCOVITE DYNASTY

The Corner-Stone of the Russian Empire—Early History—The Princes of Moscow—A New Dynasty—Wars between the Muscovite and the Tartar—Historic Battle on the Donskoi River—Dimitri Donskoi—Tamerlane—The Vassilli—The Birth of Russia—Ivan the Great—A Notable Reign.

IN THE previous chapter we have gone to some length in explaining the bloody events which attended the conquest of almost all Russia by the Mongol Asiatics.

What the Term Asiatic Means.

In speaking of Asiatics it should be borne in mind that we have alluded by this term to the Tartar or Mongolian inhabitant of the vast regions north of the Himalayan Mountains and to the north and east, generally speaking, of the Turkoman and Persion regions, which produced entirely different races of peoples, principally the Indo-European or Perso-Indian races from which the white people of Europe are derived, and the Semite tribes to which belong the Jews and Arabs.

Perhaps this explanation may be useful in avoiding confusion when speaking of the detested Mongol Tartars as Asiatics. At the present time the descendant and consanguineous races of Chinese and Japanese are also called Asiatics, making the same distinction between them and the other peoples of Southwestern Asia, above alluded to, namely the East Indians and the Semites.

Victor Hugo has said some place that the events of history repeat themselves with geometric certainty. Without going into a discussion of this proposition thus tersely stated by the great French philosopher and novelist, we may at least be sure that in a general way things that

have happened are not unlikely in the lapse of a long period of time, under favorable circumstances, to happen again. Perhaps this may look like begging the question.

Without wishing to be an alarmist let us make a hypothesis and leave the conclusion to posterity.

A Modern Problem.

Suppose an Asiatic leader of the pre-eminent qualities of Genghis-Khan at the head of a brave, patriotic, energetic nucleus-nation of Mongolian blood. Suppose that instead of becoming masters of the plains by means of an immense and efficient horde of cavalrymen, we have great adaptability for the sea, and a final rise to naval supremacy over other nations on the same continent. Suppose that this pre-eminence and native force should be accompanied by skill in organization and in the amalgamation of other peoples of kindred blood, all being endowed with a genius for self-preservation, with habits of industry and possessing a large food-producing territory with unlimited numbers of men among a vassal nation from which to draw and equip armies. Suppose that this great power, thus created, should have a practically similar religion, and be of an entirely distinct and non-mingling race, so far as the rest of the world is concerned.

We leave the answer to this puzzle to be considered, in view of the Mongol invasion of six hundred years ago and the possibilities of modern events. So much in retrospect.

The Rise of the Russian Empire.

We shall now consider briefly the rise of United Russia as it has come down to us today, based as it was upon the Muscovite dynasty as a corner stone.

Throughout the long, turbulent generations which marked the development of Russia as a whole we find a constant mingling of strife by rival military leaders and activities which had their origin in the heads of the different divisions of Christianity, namely the Roman Catholics, Greek Catholics and Protestants.

The ecclesiastic and military chieftain were equally vigilant and strenuous in their efforts to shape the political events of the middle ages. The student of the history of these times must above all keep his eye upon the Pope of Rome. In common with the rest of Europe, Russia did not escape from the struggles for supremacy between the great prelates of those centuries.

Eastern and Western Russia.

We have noticed the Lithuanian conquest which created Western Russia with a capital at Wilna, while the rest of the country which escaped from this influence centered around Moscow, which at an early day became the eastern capital. Eastern Russia was subject, in a religious sense, to the Orthodox-Greek Church, while Western Russia had three religions, Greek, Roman and Protestant.

The result was a natural antagonism between the eastern and western division of the country, the former being practically a political vassal of the Great Khan. A race was formed around Moscow under the Mongol yoke, patient and resigned, yet energetic and enterprising, bound in the long run to get the upper hand of the western princes, notwithstanding their genius for politics, their valor and pitiless cruelty.

The princes of Moscow gained their ends by intrigue, corruption, the purchases of conscience, servility to the Khans, perfidy to their equals, murder and treachery.

The above stigma has been put upon them by another writer, but it is well deserved. They, however, did create the germ of the Russian power and caused it to grow, so that henceforward we have a fixed center around which gathers that scattered history of Russia which we have been trying to follow through the previous pages.

Heretofore we have dealt with Novgorod, Smolensk, Tchernigof, Kief, the City of Vladimir and other lesser capitals, each the center of a warring principality. Still the masceration, so to speak, of these lesser Russian states by submission to the Mongols on the one hand, and the Lithuanians, tended in the end to the leveling of all things, and to the preparation for the work of organization into a national solidarity.

In a country thus humiliated and prostrated a potent dynasty such as rose in Moscow found more easy work to build a realm about a new national capital.

The Beginning of a Nation.

The name of Moscow first appears in the chronicles about the year 1147. It is there stated that the Grand Prince George Dolgorouki, having arrived on the domains of a petty prince named Stephen Koutchko, caused him to be put to death on some pretext, and that impressed by the location of one of the villages on the bank of the Moskowa, where the Kremlin now stands, he founded the city of Moscow.

We could scarcely hope to interest the reader in the long story of petty wars, murders, burnings and unscrupulous outrages which followed and marked the early history of the new city which was destined to become the key of the empire.

Those who are interested in this maze of iniquity may find it fully set forth by the Russian historian Karamsin. Suffice it to say that for a century at least Moscow continued to be an obscure and insignificant place within the domains of the Souzdal princes. We hear that it was burned by the Tartars in 1237, and that a brother of Alexander Nevsky, called Michael of Moscow, was killed there in a battle with the Lithuanians.

The Founding of Moscow.

The real founder, however, of the principality was Daniel, a son of Alexander Nevsky, who had received this small town and a few villages as his particular source of revenue to be collected by means of the usual methods among lords, enforced taxation. He began a series of conquests for the extension of his domains and laid the foundations for the principality of his successors.

He created himself an absolute autocrat and brought all the surrounding princes to his feet, an example which was religiously followed by his son George, who continued his acquisitions until he forced himself to be recognized as the Prince of Novgorod, and by truckling to the Mongol Khan secured the assassination of his chief rival and thoroughly

established himself as the supreme power in Eastern Russia. His reign closed in 1325 and was succeeded by that of Ivan, who continued to live his evil life as oppressor, burdener, tax gatherer, revenue farmer, alms giver and monk protector up to 1341.

The Rival Cities of Kief and Moscow.

With all the political iniquities by means of which Moscow was steadily gaining in importance it became necessary to secure further dignity by establishing in its midst the head of the church. Kief had been the original Holy City of the Russians, and she had been succeeded by the town of Vladimir, after Moscow was in reality the capital.

The metropolitan of Vladimir, Peter, who had an affection for Moscow, often resided there and his successor established himself there completely. Then the religious supremacy which had originally belonged to Kief passed to the new capital. Ivan did his best to give it the prestige of a metropolis. He built magnificent churches in the Kremlin, among others that of the Assumption which was succeeded by numerous others of equal dignity.

Kief, the ancient metropolis of the church, had been famous for its monastery of the Holy Catacombs, and Moscow, not to be outdone, founded, through the instrumentality of St. Sergius, the famous Troitsa or monastery of the Trinity, in its immediate vicinity. This institution subsequently became one of the richest and most venerated in eastern Russia. It was surrounded with ramparts and thick brick walls with a triple row of embrasures and nine war towers which were afterward destined to meet the assaults of Catholics and pagans and whose fortifications remain as a monument of mediaeval engineering architecture to the present time.

A New Order of Things.

The Princes of Moscow introduced in Russia the system of primogeniture, the obvious result of which was a tendency to solidify the government, exactly as the plan of St. Vladimir had tended to its separation into rival principalities by equal division among his sons at his death.

It is obvious that with a virile race, the constant division of territory must lead to weakness and militate against the building up of great territories, or the continuation of strong governments founded by ancestors with large families. The Muscovites changed this order of things completely, and by giving practically all the territory of a principality to the eldest son, the government was strengthened and its boundaries extended.

Interesting Personages.

We may pass over the turbulent times among the Souzdal princes during the reigns of Simeon the Proud, which closed in 1553, and Ivan II, who came to his end in 1359, both sons of "Ivan the Alms Giver," who were stoutly disputed by rival princes who did not desire the title of "Grand Prince" to be perpetuated in the house of Moscow.

All the contending parties seem to have appealed with equal readiness to the Mongol, but Simeon, wiser than his fellows, succeeded by backing up his claims with liberal bribes. By diplomacy, force and bribery he compelled even Novgorod to pay him a contribution and recognize him as supreme, as a result of which he first assumed the title of "Grand Prince of all the Russias."

When this dignity was challenged by Lithuania, who ventured to besiege Moscow, he gained moral support by the friendship of St. Alexis, the third Metropolitan, and he made return by further advancing the privileges and increasing the revenues of the church.

His brother, Ivan, who succeeded him and is surnamed in history "The Debonnaire," seems to have been a pacific and gentle prince who naturally had a brief reign. As a result of his weakness, Dimitri of Souzdal succeeded, but the power again returned to Moscow saved by St. Alexis, when the Muscovite capital had temporarily ceased to occupy the chief place in Eastern Russia.

Christian Versus Barbarian.

Upon the recovery of the political importance of Moscow a long series of indecisive wars ensued between the Eastern and Western princes until finally, under the Muscovite leadership, the time arrived when the

Russians ventured to take up arms against the Mongol force which had so long entrenched itself along the Volga and in 1376 an expedition against Kazan forced two Tartar princes to pay tribute and a war was inaugurated where the lines were drawn. A series of conflicts between the Christians on the one hand and the infidels on the other, culminated in the famous battle of Koulikovo, which has made Dimitri Donskoi famous.

He succeeded in forming a strong confederation composed of most of the Russian princes of the East and North, who proceeded with a great army to give battle to the Asiatic power. The Tartar was assisted by the treachery of two or three western princes and assembled a great force, composed of all the tribes of Asiatics from southeastern Russia and beyond the Caucasus and even assisted by the Genoese colonists of the Crimea.

In spite of the private jealousies of the Christian princes they assembled such an army as never had been seen in Russia. The force is said to have consisted of 150,000 men, which marched forward to meet that of the Tartars at the banks of the Don. They decided to cross the river and on the plain of Koulikovo, or "Field of Woodcocks," a great battle ensued in which the Christians gained a signal victory. The barbarians are said to have lost 100,000 men in this combat but the Russian loss was also very severe.

The Bannockburn of Russian History.

It was supposed that even Dimitri himself had perished for he was missing when the battle came to an end. He was found, however, with his armor broken, bleeding from many wounds, and unconscious. Fortunately for Moscow, however, he was not dead. This battle from which Dimitri derived his surname Donskoi, from the name of the river on whose banks it occurred, took place in the year 1380.

No event in Russian history has been more celebrated in poetry and romance than this. As the Scotch story-tellers loved to dwell upon the glories of Bannockburn, where Robert Bruce defeated Edward II, and British bards have immortalized Bosworth Field and the tragic end of

Richard III, so Koulikovo was told and retold with many variations. These stories differ considerably, the Russian chronicler being careful to give Dimitri sole credit, while the poets, inspired by the Pope of Rome, have made Saint Sergius, the counselor of the Grand Prince. the chief instrument of Russian success.

While this victory did not result in casting off the Mongol yoke, it had given courage to the Russians. It broke the charm and demonstrated that enslaved, tax-ridden and driven, as they had been before on every field, still it was possible to put the redoubtable Tartar to flight.

The Entry of Tamerlane.

Unfortunately for the Russians, another great man was looming up in Asia in the person of Tamerlane, or more properly, Timur-Beg. This great commander, who claimed to be a distant relative of Genghis-Khan, was born at a village some forty miles to the south of Samarcand in the year 1336. Almost from childhood he was a soldier, and, beginning in youth a course of conquest, he established his capital at Samarcand, and gradually spread his power until he had carried it by force of arms to Delhi in India, beyond the Ganges, had taken Bagdad, Smyrna and Asia Minor, and, finally, when over seventy years old, died from exposure in a winter campaign against China. He was a despot, who ruled without councillors or law-makers, and yet seems to have been a man of letters, as well as a warrior.

It was one of Tamerlane's generals, who, after a victory which humbled the Ottoman power in Asia Minor, was sent into Southern Russia, and, conquering the Golden Horde, announced to Dimitri that, having struck a fatal blow at their common enemy, they had better be friends.

The Traitors Punished.

These overtures were met with scorn and distrust, and the Asiatics advanced on Moscow, ravaging and burning as they progressed. Dimitri fled to Kostroma to assemble a new army, but the Mongol commander marched straight on the capital which he took by surprise, entered and

sacked. The other towns of Souzdal suffered the same fate. Gloom universal again fell upon Russia, the people being once more enslaved.

When the Tartar host returned toward the east, Dimitri gathered up the fragments of his former power, turned his attention toward the punishment of the western princes who had deserted him in his struggle against the usurper. In spite of its afflictions, Eastern Russia, so far recovered that, when Dimitri died, the principality was by far the most considerable of the states of the Northeast. He established the principle of inheritance in the direct line and caused his collateral heirs to recognize the rights of his eldest son Vassilli, or Basil, to the throne.

The Reign of the Vassilli.

Basil, who ruled from 1389 to 1425, was prince both of Moscow and Vladimir, and during his time the relative importance of the former city was still further enhanced, while Vladimir was compelled to take second place and even ancient Novgorod, whatever else it did, was forced to make the Muscovite its prince.

This prince was succeeded by another Vassilli surnamed Blind, who ruled from 1425 to 1462. His reign was marked by a civil war which lasted twenty years, between the different members of the Donskoi family, which resulted in fixing more firmly the power of the Autocracy.

It would be tiresome to go into details over the long series of wars and intrigues which occupied his reign, at the end of which, although we find Moscow strengthened, the heel of the Tartar still rested upon the Russian neck.

It was Ivan III, called "The Great," who finally accomplished the liberation of Russia from her degrading Tartar servitude. He accomplished this chiefly at the behest of his second wife. She was Sophia, the daughter of Constantine, the last Greek emperor at Byzantium, as the modern Constantinople was then called.

This empire, which had been crumbling for generations, in spite of the fact that its capital was located where it had a geographic advantage over all the commercial world of its time, had at last come under the sway of the horrible Turk, and there, by the way, upon the Golden Horn,

commanding the Dardanelles, sits the Turk yet, in spite of the anathemas of Popes, the intrigues of European courts and generations of hostile warrior kings. In fact, the Sultan promises to stand fast for an indefinite period. However, his first inroad and settlement upon the Bosphorus was indirectly a good thing for Russia.

The Liberation of Russia.

Constantine's daughter, fleeing from her father's capital, had sought refuge within the sacred walls of Rome, and when Ivan came courting her the Pope did not turn a deaf ear to the proposition that she might share the Muscovite throne. This brilliant alliance confirmed the Muscovite autocracy and enabled the Grand Prince to place upon his ensigns the two-headed eagle as a type of supreme power. With this proud Greek princess, better manners came to Moscow. The forms and ceremonies of the Byzantine court, and the arts of Greece and Rome were brought to Russia.

The princess, too, was proud and she could not brook the spectacle of Moscow paying tribute to a barbarian. She gave her husband no peace until he had thrown off the Tartar yoke and prepared himself to fight for the dignity and the independence of Russia.

He, also, on his own part had plenty of pride and ambition when spurred on by his broad-minded consort and he decided to do his utmost to raise his throne to an equality with the proudest of Europe, fearing that the monarchs of the older and more advanced nations might regard him as an upstart. He stood very much upon his dignity, insisting that he should be treated as a king. He instructed his ambassador at the Turkish Court neither to bend the knee to the Sultan nor yield precedence to the representative of any other power. He was as great a stickler for etiquette as the present king of England, and as particular about the marriages of the blood royal.

King by Divine Right.

In fact, he became a staunch and strenuous advocate of the "divinity that doth hedge about a king." He had the audacity to declare that he

had received his throne from the high and mighty Trinity and would not degrade himself by accepting titles from any prince on earth. During a long and prosperous reign he did much to increase the material greatness of the nation.

He became a pattern of industry and art, and, by liberal rewards, induced skillful artificers from abroad to flock to Moscow; he rebuilt and adorned the Kremlin, decorated it with all the splendors of which the art of his day was capable. He erected great buildings and palaces for the purposes of the Government and in war adopted the use of artillery, causing cannon to be made in great numbers.

He had mines opened and worked, and coined money of silver and copper in his own capital. He established diplomatic relations with foreign nations and first made Russia a European power in the consideration of the other Courts.

His reign was one of pomp and show, Oriental forms and ceremonies marking the character of his court. There was no moral element, however, in all his grandeur and nothing was done to promote the elevation of the masses of the people. Though said to be guilty of personal cowardice at times, when his wife was not looking on, yet by the victories of his arms, he added twenty thousand square miles to the territory of Russia and over four millions of people to its population during a reign of forty-three years, which had surpassed in importance to his country that of any of his predecessors.

Russian Dominion Extended.

Ivan was succeeded by his son, Vassilli III, who came to the throne in 1305. His mother was Sophia, and he was not the true heir, being the son of a second marriage. His brother, however, who should have received the scepter, was thrown into prison for four years, at the end of which time he was put to death. He ruled twenty-eight years, and through wars with the Tartars and with Lithuania greatly extended his dominions. He acquired Smolensk, and, although his reign was somewhat tame between that of the two Ivans, yet during his time Russia moved towards unity and the authority of the Autocracy did not diminish.

At his death his empire, enlarged and extended, was left to his infant son, Ivan, Helena, his wife, being appointed Regent. This woman, it is sad to state, appears to have been of utterly depraved character. After six years of crime and misrule she died unregretted and no coroner's inquest was held over the remains—poison was hinted at.

Ivan, "The Great," had first assumed the title of "Tsar" and we now come to his successor, who really deserved the title and began a period where the rule of czars, as autocrats, upon a large scale and with unlimited power, may be said in reality to have started. The man who thus filled the bill was Ivan, "The Terrible," whom we have dignified as "The First Czar" with the above explanation, though in fact the title was first assumed by his predecessors. We have given him this honor, because of his peculiar and surpassing fitness for the title and his exercise of supreme tyranny, so obnoxious to modern nations indeed that except in the case of Russia, absolute personal despotism has been abolished throughout the world among the white races.

CHAPTER XII.

THE FIRST CZAR

Ivan the Terrible—Early Demoralization—Shuiski Thrown to the Dogs—Influence of Ivan's Wife—Awful Atrocities—Proposes Marriage to Queen Elizabeth—Feodor the Imbecile—Boris the Evil Genius—The False Dimitri—Vassilli Shuiski.

IN ORDER to not mislead the reader, it may be well to call attention to what was stated in the previous chapter upon one point. That is that "Ivan the Terrible," who came to the throne in 1533, was not the first Muscovite prince who called himself Czar, but that simply to give him the conspicuous place which he deserves in the history of the sixteenth century, we have placed him in a chapter thus headed.

Youthful Days of Ivan.

During his minority, and after the death of his mother of evil repute, the government fell into the hands of a Council of Regency, with Prince Andrew Shuiski at its head. This gentleman and his associates appear to have been most unprincipled and designing villains. The iniquities which they practiced were so refined as to be a marvel to the greatest and most accomplished past-master in wickedness, which even the author of the old fairy tales could invent.

These men actually began a deliberate education of corruption intended either to brutalize or perhaps to cause the death of the young man left to their charge and who was destined, should he survive their deviltries, to become the absolute master of the fortunes of the patient millions of Russia.

He was designedly accustomed in early years to deeds of cruelty, and to imbibe a disregard for the life and well being of subordinates. His guardians mocked at his better impulses and applauded his crimes. He was encouraged, for example, to drive furiously about the streets

of Moscow, running over old people and young children and trampling them under his horses' feet as a mark of the superiority of royal blood over the rights of lower humanity.

On the other hand, it is said that they in turn did not hesitate to visit him with abuse or even bodily punishment, and while encouraging his egotism on the one hand, they embittered and humiliated him on the other.

Surrounded by Evil Influences.

Under such training any boy would have been spoiled, and the result was that as he grew to manhood Ivan's nature was dwarfed and perverted, all that was good in him having been repressed and all that was bad having been stimulated and cultivated.

With his fourteenth year, old in wickedness, he was ripe for revolt against his oppressors, and declared that he would rule without aid of a Council, and in a fit of passion against Andrew Shuiski, he ordered him to be thrown to his dogs. The order was obeyed, and the head of the powerful house of Shuiski expiated a life of violence and crime by being torn to pieces in the kennels of the bloodhounds.

The young Czarowitch was not, however, to gain his liberty thus easily, for the Gluiskis, another powerful family, rose to ascendency in the State, and the young prince fell under their evil influence for the next three or four years after his summary liberation from the other tyrant. Finally in his eighteenth year, after a minority of blood and horror, Ivan IV was crowned Tsar. This was in January, 1547. Soon afterwards he was married to a lady named Anastasia Romanova.

Ivan's Character Undergoes a Change.

About this time Moscow was greatly injured by conflagrations started by its own exasperated people, it is said, although some historians attribute them to the machinations of Ivan's political enemies. At any rate these events and the influence of two priests, together with that of his young wife, seem to have aroused him to a proper appreciation of the enormity of his past deeds, and his character underwent a sudden and very marked change for the better.

He busied himself to extend the confines of his realm, and in 1552 he became master of Kazan and two years later of Astrakhan, forcing back the Mongols steadily toward the Caspian Sea.

Having broken the Mongol power in the south, and strengthened the buttresses of his dominions on the east, he then turned his attention to the north, being anxious to open up communications with the western world. He was thus brought into collision with the Swedes and the Teutonic Knights, which resulted in a war between the Muscovite and the Order. In 1558 Ivan invaded Livonia, taking several towns, whereupon the Knights made an alliance with the King of Poland, and war ensued.

The Czar Justifies His Atrocious Acts.

Unfortunately for the history of the man, at this time his character seems to have undergone a second sudden change. His wife Anastasia died and the Tsar seems to have been seized with a crazy madness which led him to all sorts of atrocities. He banished the priests under whose good influence he had been for several years, and thought only of vengeance upon his enemies and the prosecution of wars abroad and suppression at home.

All his subjects were afraid of him and the treason of one of the princes, Andrew Kurbski, who seems to have been literally frightened into desertion to the Poles, led to the writing of a letter by Ivan which has been preserved and which is interesting as showing the tyrant's own estimate of his own acts. He dwells upon the degrading subjection in which he had been kept by his early advisers and attempts to justify his cruelty by saying that the people whom he had killed were only his slaves over whom God had given him the power of life and death. How like a czar!

The Nation in a Turmoil.

The conduct of the monarch from this time forward certainly indicates a condition of semi-insanity. In December, 1564, he retired with a small retinue to a retreat near Moscow, and the nobility, afraid that the monarch was about to desert the country and plunge them into a

turmoil over the succession, waited upon him in a body and implored his return. He finally consented and brought back with him woes and miseries to which the devoted citizens of his capital were compelled to submit. It is surprising what Russians will stand from the autocrat whom they regard as their ruler by the will of God. It is worthy of notice that in 1564 the first printing press was set up in Moscow, and thus the supreme agent of modern enlightenment found a humble foothold in the capital of the chief tyrant of the century.

Ivan, after his return, began a series of atrocities too numerous to mention, but among them may be noted the murder of Philip, the archbishop of Moscow, the execution of Alexandra, the widow of his brother, the burning and sacking of Novgorod for having questioned his authority, and lastly the terrible butcheries on the Red Square.

The Destruction of Novgorod.

Novgorod, which he ruthlessly destroyed, was one of the oldest commonwealths in Europe, antedating that of Florence in Italy. The city was larger than London at that time. It was a place rich in historic memories and linked with the whole past of Russia whose capital it had been six centuries before Moscow was built and a thousand years before the founding of St. Petersburg.

This ancient capital was a proud, wealthy, and luxurious city, enclosed within a circuit of fifty miles of walls and containing at this time perhaps four hundred thousand people.

Ivan knew that it hated his rule and suspected that it desired to be taken under the protection of Sweden. He swore that he would raze Novgorod and sow its site with salt. He invaded it with an army of thirty thousand Tartars and for six weeks personally directed the ravaging of its fields and the burning and destruction of the city. He ordered his soldiers to burn, slay, and give no quarter to old or young. Like Nero in the great circus when Christians were slaughtered for his amusement, Ivan personally took a hand in the wholesale butchery, the streets ran with blood, and the river was actually choked with the bodies of the dead. Over sixty thousand people lost their lives in the

general scramble and terror. Novgorod never recovered from this catastrophe and has remained to this day a village. Other smaller cities shared the same fate.

Philip Prior the Martyr.

It is hard to comprehend a condition of society which would permit of such mad tyranny, but history tells the same long story throughout his later days. Even in his own capital, scenes similar to those at Novgorod were enacted and it is reported that often at the end of some bloody atrocity, he would piously lift his eyes to Heaven and ask an interest in the prayers of his dear people.

One of Ivan's martyrs was Philip Prior, a priest famous for the purity of his life and example. He dared at one time to rebuke the crimes of the Czar to his face. The Greek church has canonized him. His remains have been removed to Moscow, and on the day of his coronation every czar of Russia must kneel before his shrine and kiss his feet.

A Czar of Many Wives.

Ivan violated all the laws he knew or which were regarded in his time as binding upon mankind. He did violence to the strictest canons of his church by taking to himself as many wives as fancy suited him. His crazy audacity led him to the extremity of offering his hand to Queen Elizabeth of England, when he already had seven living wives.

It is safe to say that the haughty, red-haired spinster of England did not give much attention to his suit, and he therefore, unabashed, offered his heart and hand to one of her ladies of honor, Mary Hastings, daughter of the Earl of Huntington. The distinction was declined, however, and Ivan solaced himself by putting to death the ambassador, who had done the courting for him at the British capital.

It was during this reign that England first entered into relations with Russia. This was while young Edward the Sixth was king, in 1553. Three ships were sent out to look for a northeast passage to China and India, and the expedition wound up at the Court of Ivan, who received the English pleasantly and granted certain trading privileges in his

dominions to the north. This, of course, was before the matrimonial episode, for the young king's sister, Elizabeth, at that time did not seem to be very near to the throne which she afterwards made so bloody and so illustrious in letters and conquest on the high seas.

Latter Years of Ivan's Reign.

Ivan was continually at war in the Baltic territory, and on the whole not very successful in this region. Nevertheless, he found opportunity now and then to sack a city and put to death a few thousand of her devoted people.

In 1571, however, the Mongols made another invasion from the Crimea, and in the language of Hakluit they "burned Moscow every stick." In 1572, when the King of Poland died, Ivan declared himself as one of the competitors for the throne, but not gaining it he made war upon the successful prince, Stephen Batory, who proved a formidable foe to the tyrant, who was now growing old in years as well as wickedness.

During his reign the conquest of Siberia was begun. The campaign had been carried on by a Cossack chief named Yermak, who had formerly been a robber, but he purchased his pardon from the autocrat at Moscow by laying his conquests at his feet.

The declining days of the tyrant were made bitter by the death of his eldest son as the result of a blow by his own hand. In a fit of passion he struck him with his iron staff and when the youth died his father's grief and remorse still further tended to embitter his morose disposition. It was not surprising that after all his wickedness and with the weakness of old age coming upon him, he became continually afraid of conspiracies which might be hatched by his subjects, and he resorted to fortune tellers and the divination of witches for protection. The best act of his career of villainy and atrocity was his death, which occurred in the year 1584.

A Weak Prince.

He was succeeded by his son Theodore, or Feodor, as the Russians call him, who held the reigns of power for fourteen years, up to 1598.

He was a weak prince, controlled by a council of nobles, the head of which was his brother-in-law, Boris Gudunof. He was old enough to reign as an autocrat as his father had done before him, but he was a harmless imbecile whose greatest pleasure from early childhood had been to hide in church towers and ring the bells at inopportune hours. His kinsman, Boris, began immediately to plot his ruin, but was deterred from doing away with him by the fact that should Feodor die, another son of Ivan IV named Dimitri, a son of his seventh wife, would still be in line.

One day in May, 1591, this lad was found with his throat cut in the courtyard of the royal palace. The imbecility of Feodor offering no obstacle to the actual rule by Boris, he was allowed to live until seven years after, when he died, probably, a natural death. He was the last of the line of Rurik, a house which for eight hundred years had reigned and had given fifty-two sovereigns to the empire.

Boris Succeeds to the Throne.

Boris was crowned czar and ruled with an iron hand so that, although some of the remote collateral branches of the house of Rurik still existed, none dared to aspire to the sovereignty. The great princes whom he could not cajole, or coerce, he exiled. He was of Tartar descent and fully imbued with the spirit of Asiatic despotism and was just the man to oppress Russia with the heavy yoke of serfdom at a time when bondage to the soil had for the most part ceased in the rest of Europe. His administration was brilliant and able, and under his name Russia won fame both in arms and diplomacy.

He was respected abroad and feared and hated at home. The noblest and best families were in exile and the people, crushed under a ruthless despotism, became sullen and despondent. The minstrels who, under the influence of the romantic days of the Renaissance, had risen to great popularity and who enlivened the times with songs and stories of chivalry, disappeared. The cold chill of suppression fell upon the genius of the people. Before his time a form of literature which could exist without the art of printing had attained a splendid development.

A Period of National Depression.

It kept alive, on the lips of the people and in the memory of the peasants, by oral traditions, the lyric poetry, marriage songs, funeral dirges, and holiday hymns which marked the intellectual life of the masses. Narratives, sometimes in prose and sometimes in poetry, glorified their old heroes. There were religious verses which sang the praises of Russian saints from village to village, and music, painting, and the decorative arts had made considerable advances. All these evidences of intellectual awakening were obliterated under the national depression of the serf system under Boris.

The Cossack peasantry, an industrious and peaceable race, fled in a body from this tyranny, taking refuge in the country of their ancestors on their native steppes in Asia, and the result was a horrible famine, which lasted for three years, spreading despair over the whole country.

A Curious Episode.

In the midst of all this suffering, a report was spread that Dimitri, the youngest son of Ivan the Terrible, was not dead, and that, therefore, Boris was a usurper. This episode of the false Dimitri is one of the most curious in Russian history.

Although it would seem impossible at first glance for an entire nation to give credence to such a story, yet it must be remembered that other pretensions of a similar nature have been known in the history of the world, and even in modern times the so-called "lost Dauphin" of France has received a great deal of notice from historians.

If Eleazer Williams, a half breed Canadian Indian, could pose through the early part of the nineteenth century as a son of Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette, who had escaped the "Reign of Terror" of the French Revolution, how can we wonder that the ignorant masses of Russia at the beginning of the seventeenth century should have given ear to an imposter?

The rise and fall of this false Dimitri hold a large place in Russian history of the time. It seems that his real name was Gregory Otrepief,

and that he was a young monk who could read and write. These accomplishments, rare in his day, had given him a place in the service of a Polish prince who passed much time at the court of the czar. It is related that this prince one day gave his secretary a box on the ear, and that the young man burst into tears, exclaiming, "If you knew who I am, you would not strike me." He then told a very plausible story, declaring that his real name was Dimitri, and that he was the true heir to the Russian throne.

"I Mean to Become Czar of Russia."

Although the story does not appear to have made much impression upon the Polish prince at the time, he afterwards, either through conviction or selfish motives, espoused the cause of the impostor. The story runs that the young monk learned many secrets and particulars of the life of the murdered czarowitch from old servants and that he ascertained the names and titles of the officers who had been attached to the boy's person and became possessed, probably through the same sources, of a seal bearing Dimitri's initials and a cross set with diamonds, said to have been his baptismal gifts.

Having prepared his part, he begged to be allowed to retire from the court. When asked why he should seek to leave the capital where, with his talent and learning he might have a brilliant future, he replied, "By remaining here I should become a Bishop at most, but I mean to be Czar of Russia."

This declaration having finally reached the ears of Boris himself, he gave orders to have the crazy monk sent to a remote cloister and thought no more about him. Otrepief set out, but instead of retiring to the seclusion intended for him, he ran away and escaped into Lithuania, always hostile to the czar. At every monastery he passed he would write on the wall, "I am Dimitri, son of Ivan IV; although believed to be dead, I escaped from my assassins. When I am upon my father's throne, I will recompense the generous men who now show me hospitality."

Many Espouse the Cause of Dimitri.

These bulletins began to make a sensation, and the young monk, now twenty-two years of age, found ready believers among those who fancied they saw a resemblance to his mother, the late Tsarina Mary. He claimed certain marks of identity on his person, and the royal seal and the diamond cross were considered ample proofs that the young man was no impostor. It is probable that many were not over-particular in examining his claims because anything was preferable to the reign of Boris.

The Jesuits espoused his cause and became his most zealous adherents, and the Pope's Nuncio promised the aid of the Holy Father, provided, of course, that when the young man became czar he would further the interests of the Church of Rome. The Poles were ready to help him, for hatred of Moscow, and the Cossacks of the Don flocked to the Pretender's standard to avenge many wrongs at the hands of the tyrant. Ukraine declared for him, and soon he had an army of fifty thousand men with which he appeared on the Russian frontier.

The Death of Boris.

Boris had already sent an army of similar size against him, and, after some fruitless skirmishing, the battle was joined and, although the contest was for a long time doubtful, the forces of the impostor finally triumphed. For some reason he did not press his victory, but issued a proclamation calling upon Boris to come down from the throne and make his peace with Heaven.

Boris knew very well that the man was an impostor, because he had secured the murder of the real Dimitri, but he was a very superstitious man, and, haunted by an imaginary phantom of his youthful victim, he came to believe that the son of Ivan IV had really risen from his grave and headed the victorious army that was about to enter Moscow and drive him from his throne.

He gave no sign, however, of his intentions or feelings to his counselors, but he plotted his own death, and resolved to die as he had lived,

a sovereign. Rising from a splendid banquet given to some distinguished foreigners in his palace, he was taken suddenly ill and died in two hours. It was believed that the cause of his death was poison administered by his own hand.

His son, Feodor, a youth of sixteen whom he had named as his successor, ruled for six weeks, when he, with his mother and sister, was captured and thrown into prison by Dimitri, who treated them with respect and kindness.

A Humane Ruler.

On the 10th of June, 1605, the impostor finally made a triumphal entry into Moscow and was crowned in the palace of the czar.

This young man, whoever he was, was a remarkable character. He possessed a commanding and agreeable person, a persuasive eloquence, and he was gracious and affable in manner, yet dignified as became a sovereign. He was as brilliant of intellect as he was good of heart. He possessed the faculty of creating enthusiastic devotion among the people.

He started out on his reign auspiciously. He surprised all by his thorough acquaintance with the empire, its wants and resources, and his memory for places and people excited universal wonder. He set out reforming abuses and proved himself to be a man with neither favorite nor master.

On public and private occasions, he waived the usual solemn etiquette of his predecessors and was always easy of approach. He appeared at the door of his palace twice a week to listen to the grievances of the people and receive their petitions with his own hands. He was humane and moderate, and those who believed that he was an impostor began to be sorry that he really had not been born to the throne.

The Czarina Acknowledges Dimitri.

One of his fixed determinations was, as he declared, to shed no Christian blood, and this was so unlike the habits of a real czar that the people marveled. In the meantime his alleged mother, the late Czarina Mary, was still living as a nun in a convent where she had been sent by Boris, and when the young man had been in power for a month

the return of this royal nun was arranged. Dimitri went out to meet her, and in the royal tent they spent some time alone.

Whether the lady really knew that the young man was an impostor or not will probably never be settled, although it is believed that she must have been aware of the murder of her son, and indeed must have seen his dead body. At any rate, Dimitri and Mary appeared presently before the people, where the Czarina publicly embraced and acknowledged the impostor as her son.

The young Czar ostentatiously placed his alleged mother in a carriage and walked beside it bareheaded toward Moscow. She was assigned apartments at the Kremlin, and in every way treated in a manner becoming her dignity.

The young Czar married the popular and beautiful daughter of the Palatine of Sendomir, whom he had met while traveling in Poland where he had become betrothed to her. The wedding occurred on the 18th of May, 1606, being celebrated with great pomp at Moscow.

A Race War.

The young man's troubles began here. The enormous retinue of Poles that had attended his bride on her journey to the Russian capital bore themselves in the most arrogant manner towards the Russians, and the old and undying animosity between the two races was kindled anew.

Discontent reigned among the people, based upon reports that the Czar had already surrounded himself with Polish counselors, and had abandoned old Russian traditions and customs, and, though nominally an adherent of the Greek Church, he was really a Papist at heart. But the greatest of all his sins was this marriage with an unbaptized woman, a Polish heretic, so regarded, because she had not been immersed and the Greek Church baptizes only by immersion. The result was a rebellion under Prince Vassilli Shuiski. This prince had before headed a conspiracy against the new Czar and had been sentenced to exile in Siberia, but the Czar had pardoned him.

The revolution made such headway that at daybreak on the 24th

of May the whole city was in rebellion, and Dimitri was warned of his danger but would not listen. In the meantime a fanatical religious riot was fomented on the streets, and there were loud cries for orthodox Christians to rise and put to death the inmates of the houses where the Poles lodged, which had been marked with chalk the night before. The palace of the Czar was stormed by an armed mob shouting "Death to the impostor!" Dimitri seized a sword and defended himself with great bravery, and his guards stood by their master until the last.

Death of Dimitri.

Finally, seeing further resistance useless, Dimitri leaped from a back window of the palace and broke his leg in the fall. Fainting with pain he was seized by the mob and ignominiously put to death. He died stoutly claiming that he was indeed the Czar Dimitri, although there seems to be not the least doubt that he was in fact, as historians have unanimously rated him, a pretender.

Vassilli Shuiski succeeded him. After a stormy reign of four years he was deposed, in 1610, and thrown into prison where he ended his days. One ambitious prince after another now grasped the sceptre only to be deposed by a more powerful rival, until out of this period of anarchy and civil war the dynasty of the Romanoffs came forth

CHAPTER XIII.

THE ROMANOFFS

The House of Rurik Becomes Extinct—Election of a New Czar—Michael Romanoff, Founder of Russia, Chosen—His Administration Marked by Great Wisdom—His Son Alexis Succeeds Him—Incorporation of Ukraine and Country of the Cossacks—Wars with Sweden and Poland—Civil Rebellion—Feodor III Ascends the Throne—Old Custom of Choosing a Wife for the Czar Abolished—Ivan and Peter Become Joint Sovereigns—Peter the Great, His Remarkable Character—Wars with Sweden and Turkey—Founding of St. Petersburg.

OUR narrative has now reached the restorative period of Russian history. We have seen how Russia, from a collection of barbarous tribes, has gradually become a great group of Slavic-Tartar principalities, and how out of the turmoil of centuries the Muscovite princes of the house of Rurik had become pre-eminent, until Ivan the Great assumed the title of Czar, and Ivan the Terrible became the finished article in the line of an absolute and fully-developed irresponsible despot. We have seen how he was succeeded by political confusion and finally anarchy.

How the Czar Was Chosen.

In 1612, in November, the throne being vacant, the nobles met in council and dispatched letters to every town in the empire, summoning the clergy, nobility and citizens to send delegates to Moscow to meet in a national assembly and proceed with the election of a czar. This was necessary because the direct line of the house of Rurik having run out, there was no recognized heir to the throne. There were many claimants, not only within Russia, but candidates from neighboring kingdoms, and indeed the King of Poland was ready, and did subsequently, in spite of the action of the National Congress, declare himself Czar of Russia.

A fast of three days was appointed throughout the country that the

people might invoke God's blessing on the choice of a new sovereign. This fast was most devoutly observed by the nation.

The day of election finally arrived in Lent, in the year 1613, and the choice, fortunately for Russia, fell upon Michael Romanoff, destined to become the head of the dynasty of able rulers, distinguished warriors and, usually, estimable men who have composed the royal family of Russia from that day to the present time. It thus happens that the Russian Empire as a whole, as we know it, has never had but two ruling houses, namely, the dynasties of Rurik and Romanoff.

The Romanoffs a Distinguished Family.

The young Czar was a youth of sixteen, personally unknown, but recommended by the virtues of his father, a high dignitary of the Greek Church. This family had long been distinguished for brilliant public service, exalted patriotism and personal integrity. Through the female branch they were connected with the royal line of Rurik.

Before he assumed the crown young Michael bound himself by the most solemn oaths to protect the Greek Church, to seek no revenge for injuries suffered by his family in the past, to change none of the old laws and to make no new ones, to declare neither war nor peace, to decide upon nothing without the advice of his Council of State, to surrender his own estates and incorporate them with the crown lands.

Peace the Prime Object of the Czar.

The result was that the country once more enjoyed peace; pretenders to the throne no longer were countenanced; old feuds were healed; diplomatic relations were formed with other countries and Russia began to take her just place among the civilized nations of the then Western world. Throughout the reign, peace was consistently observed and aimed at, as the prime object and necessity of the administration, in order that the country wasted by so many years of war and tyranny might have a time of convalescence.

Perhaps the most familiar and true comparison to be made, in order

to illustrate the progress of Russia under the first Romanoff, is the case of Mexico under President Porfirio Diaz. As Diaz has made modern Mexico, so Michael Romanoff founded modern Russia.

Compared to Modern Mexico.

Like Russia, Mexico had long suffered the woes of internal dissension and embarrassment of foreign hostility invited by her weakness. Throwing off the yoke of Spain, when that power began to decline in the early part of the nineteenth century, a long series of republics and dictatorships with various constitutions had succeeded each other.

Plundered by military self-seekers, repressed by the domination of monks, despoiled of her territory at the behest of the slave power of the United States, at the close of the war of 1846-48, and finally a prey to the cupidity of Napoleon III, ending in the tragic death of the ill-fated Maximilian at Queretaro, in 1877, rescued from foreign power by the firmness and courage of Grant and Sheridan, Mexico fell to Diaz, a land of brigands, without credit abroad or confidence at home.

In our own time we have seen the result. Credit has been established, a standing army for the national safeguard maintained, education fostered, industry encouraged, revolution suppressed, protection to life and property assured, and confidence restored at home and abroad by the natural growth which has come from continued peace and the conservation of inherent resources. So Russia enjoyed a period of recuperation under Michael Romanoff.

Wars and Rumors of Wars.

The condition of the country at the beginning of his reign was indeed critical. A large portion of its territory was in the hands of the Swedes, at that time an important power in Europe under the sturdy old warrior Gustavus Adolphus, destined to pass the prime of his life in the long wars which for thirty years rent Europe, in the struggle between Protestantism and the Church of Rome.

The Poles were pressing the empire from the west and the villages of the country were plundered by wandering bands of Cossacks from

the south. Ladislaus, the King of Poland, son of Sigismund, had not yet renounced the title of Czar, and, in 1617, four years after Michael was crowned, appeared with an invading army under the walls of Moscow, but was defeated on the first day of December, 1618, and consented to abandon his claims and conclude a limited peace which was to last fourteen years and six months.

In 1617, through the good offices of James I of England, a treaty was concluded with Gustavus Adolphus at Stolbovo, a town near Lake Ladoga, by which the Russians had been compelled to give up a large portion of territory, along the Baltic, to the Swedes, including the ancient Novgorod, but this peace with Sweden proved to be a most fortunate thing for Russia because Gustavus, feeling free to prosecute his wars in Germany, was content to maintain friendship with Russia and the Greek Church, against a common enemy hostile to both Protestantism and Russian Orthodoxy.

Michael's Father Made Patriarch.

By the peace with Poland above mentioned, Philarete, the father of Michael, who had been some time a prisoner at Warsaw, was allowed to return to Moscow, and in 1619 was elected Patriarch, an office which had been for some time vacant. Young Michael now associated his father with himself in his power and all ukases were published in their joint names. The Patriarch held a separate court and always sat at the right hand of the sovereign. Under the guidance of his father, a wise and experienced political ecclesiastic, the Emperor was now able to cope with powerful nobles, who were constantly conspiring at home as well as with diplomats sent to his court from foreign capitals.

Thus wisdom marked his administration, and treaties to the advantage of Russia were made with France and England, a small loan of some fifty thousand rubles being advanced by King James, to relieve the necessities of the depleted treasury at Moscow, and provide pay and munitions for the army which was necessary for defense, against the Poles on the one hand and for the suppression of the Cossacks on the other.

The country swarmed with English and French merchants anxious to obtain concessions, prominent among which was the right to trade with India by the way of Obi and to have a road for free commerce opened to Persia by way of the Volga.

The Successful Reign of Alexis.

Michael died in 1645 and was succeeded by his son Alexis. Although the reign of this sovereign was long, lasting for thirty-one years, it was not brilliant in a military sense, although it proved so humane, sagacious and successful that he is often called, in Russian annals, "The Father of his Country."

He made a new codification of the laws which was based on the preceding code of Ivan III. This was accomplished by a royal commission, composed of ecclesiastical and lay members, appointed to examine existing laws and make any necessary additions, or to adopt to the present needs any which had become obsolete.

They did the work very promptly as compared with Congressional commissions to which we are accustomed nowadays, finishing their task in two months and a half. This original code is still preserved at Moscow, and it is worthy of notice in that it recognized the equality of all men in the eyes of the law, and thus anticipated the fundamental principle which was not generally acknowledged in Western Europe until the following century.

We are told that Alexis allowed access to all petitioners at his favorite village. He caused a box to be placed opposite his bed-room window, and as soon as the Czar arose in the morning and appeared at the window the suppliants came forward with their complaints and placed them in the box, which was afterward taken to him.

The Empire Extended.

One of the chief events of his reign was the incorporation of the Ukraine and the country of the Cossacks with Russia. This addition to his dominions came about indirectly through the condition of anarchy which existed in Poland. A long struggle had been going on for the

possession of South Russia, between the Khan of the Crimea, the Sultan of Turkey and the King of Poland, with the result that the region was in constant distress and turmoil over the warring forces.

Finally the Christians appealed to the Czar as the head of the Orthodox Church and he, finding an excuse to break the peace with Poland, in 1654, solemnly announced that he had decided to march in person against his enemy. He commanded that in this campaign no occasion should be given for the generals to dispute for precedence. He conducted the war with such humanity, and so well timed the deliverance, that these circumstances greatly contributed to Muscovite success.

Many towns of White Russia opened their gates to him, Smolensk alone resisting, but at the end of five weeks made an easy capitulation. Wilna, Grodno and Kodno fell successively, and the Muscovites invaded Southern Poland and took Lublin.

All the East resounded with the Russian victories, and Wallachia and Moldavia implored Alexis to take them under his protection. Poland was pressed on every hand, and Charles X, King of Sweden, arrived and captured Posen, Warsaw and Kracow.

The Swedish monarch, swelled with ambition, even threatened the Russian conquests and claimed Lithuania. The Czar feared that he had only shaken Poland to strengthen Sweden, and hastened to negotiate with the Poles who promised to elect him after the death of their present king. Then he turned his arms against Sweden and attacked the Baltic provinces. After some preliminary successes, however, the campaign languished, and Alexis made a truce which finally resulted in the peace of Cardis in 1651, by means of which Russia abandoned Livonia.

Internal Dissensions.

New troubles ensued, however, and the war soon recommenced, but the Russians were unsuccessful at every point, and having no longer money to pay the army resorted to a debased currency, which led to financial troubles and commercial distress. Riots broke out in Moscow against the Czar's chief adviser, who was a kinsman of the Czarina, and

troubles galore surrounded the sovereign. Troops were obliged to fire upon the rebels to put down the uprising, and several thousand of them were killed before quiet was restored.

There was a general reaction against Polish influence, and the alliance which the Russians had made with Poland, by which Smolensk and Kief and Little Russia on the left bank of the Dnieper had been secured, failed to cement a friendship between the two countries, although the series of petty wars, which marked the reign, finally resulted through the treaty of Lublin, in 1569, by which Russia obtained a large slice of the disputed territory. Those interested in the disturbances of this time will find it necessary, for complete information, to turn to a history of Poland and Sweden under Gustavus Adolphus, but the limits of this work will not permit us to cover all this ground.

Accepting the opportunity afforded by the hostilities between Russia and Poland, the Cossacks rose in rebellion, but, after devastating a large section in the valley of the Volga during a period of three years, Alexis defeated their chief and pardoned him, upon his taking the oath of allegiance. Another rebellion, however, broke out headed by the same refractory Cossack chief who raised an army of 200,000 men. Having violated his oath, he again proclaimed himself an enemy of the nobles and the restorer of liberty to the people. Astrakhan surrendered to him and he ruled from Nijini-Novgorod to Kazan. He was, however, simply a vulgar robber, and his atrocities disgusted the more respectable of his adherents who gradually dispersed, and in 1671 he was captured, taken to Moscow and executed.

The People Reject Civilization.

Alexis died in 1676 in the 48th year of his age. During his reign he had attempted to promote learning and the arts, but his efforts to introduce into Russia the customs of more enlightened nations met with but slight success.

Russia had been Asiatic under the Ruriks and, when the first Romanoffs tried to make it European, progress was slow. The people who were grossly ignorant were wedded to the old customs and super-

stitions. It required the strong hand and master mind of Peter the Great, who came later, to civilize them.

Feodor III, the son of Alexis, succeeded him, coming to the throne at nineteen years of age. He was a prince weak in body but of strong intellect, and instituted many reforms, which, however, he did not live to see consummated. His aim was internal improvement rather than the conquest of new territory. He tried to check the pride of nobles which had become insufferable, the family which could show the longest pedigree being the most arrogant.

Old Customs Abolished.

The new Czar, under the pretense of correcting certain errors in these records, ordered them to be brought to court. He then called together an assembly of the highest civic and clerical dignitaries of the empire, and in an eloquent address set forth the dissensions which he declared were caused by these records. He advised that they be burned, after having the names and dignities of the noble families inscribed in a new set of books opened for that purpose. He carried his point and assent was given to the proposition. The records, being heaped up in the courtyard of the palace, were set on fire and with them perished the assumptions of the old nobility of Russia.

He also abolished the old custom of choosing a wife for the czar. Heretofore, in accordance with Oriental custom, the Czar had been in the habit of selecting his consort from among his own people. On an appointed day the daughters of the noble families were invited to the imperial palace, in order that the Czar might choose a wife from among them. They came in the most gorgeous apparel, attended by the heads of their families, and were entertained with great festivities lasting often for several days together.

During this time the prince critically and attentively observed the young ladies and finally, having made his choice, he seated himself at the banquet table with his young guests, and there presented to the one he had chosen a handkerchief and a ring, dismissing the rest with gifts. His choice was then declared in public, the future Czarina receiving the

crown as princess. Alexis had chosen two wives in this manner. The result of this system was dissatisfaction and dissension among the nobility, and, not infrequently, ended with the poisoning of the successful candidate.

Chooses a Foreign Wife.

Feodor, having witnessed the bitter feuds which arose from this custom in his father's time, resolved to choose a wife from another nation. As he had already formed an ardent attachment to a Polish lady, inclination as well as politics led him to this decision. The clericals were violently opposed to the innovation. In spite of the anathemas of the church, however, the young Czar married the lady of his choice.

After a reign of six years he died, leaving no heir, but he had six sisters and one brother. This brother, however, being an imbecile, Feodor had chosen before his death his half-brother Peter, the son of his father by his second wife, Natalia, to be his successor, and thus we come to the great page in Russian history covered by the reign of Peter the Great, which began in 1689 and lasted till 1725.

Peter was not allowed to come to the throne peaceably, for the family of the first wife of his father resolved, if possible, to retain the succession. Sophia, the eldest daughter of Alexis, sister of the late Czar, was a princess of great beauty and talent, united with courage equal to any emergency, and she contested the crown, first in the name of her idiot brother and then in her own. The family of the second wife were equally active in pressing the claims of Peter, then a boy ten years old.

Peter Narrowly Escapes Death.

Sophia finally gained over the support of the National Guard and turned them loose on Peter's adherents. A carnage of three days ensued, during which two of Peter's uncles, brothers of his mother, and sixty of their kindred were put to death. Natalia, Peter's mother, who still survived, fled from the capital, taking with her her son. It is said that for over fifty miles she carried him in her arms, the guard following close upon her path, determined to put her and her son to the sword.

She finally sought refuge in the convent of the Holy Trinity, having barely time to reach the altar and place her child upon it when the murderous horde entered. One of them seized the boy and was about to cut off his head, when the sounds of approaching horsemen were heard outside, and the frightened ruffians fled and Peter the Great was preserved to Russia.

In the meantime Ivan was declared sovereign, but, idiotic as he was, he knew that he was unfit for the crown and requested that Peter might be associated with him.

This request was granted and the young princes were declared joint sovereigns, with Sophia as Regent during the minority. During the regency an expedition was undertaken against the Mongols in the Crimea, but little was accomplished.

Peter's First Marriage Unhappy.

In 1689 Peter married a lady named Eudoxia Lopukhina, but the union was by no means a happy one. Two sons were born to Peter, Alexander and Alexis. The first lived only six months, but the latter survived to make a sorry figure in Russian history. The friends and adherents of Peter had occasion to come to his support to put down a revolt of the Guards, which, it was alleged, was the result of a conspiracy to secure his assassination. Sophia, suspected of guilt in this matter, was seized and permanently incarcerated in a convent under the name of Susanna, where she remained until her death, fifteen years later. From the year 1689, seven years after the death of his brother, who had designated him as his heir to the throne, the actual rule of Peter dates.

His brother Ivan, infirm in body and mind, from this time forward had practically no share in the affairs of government. In spite of his infirmities, however, he took a wife and had three daughters, one of whom lived to make her mark in Russian history. After a retired life of several years, Ivan died, in 1696, at the age of 30.

The Far-Reaching Object of the Czar.

The new Czar inaugurated a policy which has marked the course of the Russian Empire from his day to the present time. This policy aimed to free Russia from confinement as a land-locked empire, and to give her seaports on unfrozen waters. This great object to seek ports, unblocked by ice, was the cornerstone of his administration, and he left the idea as a heritage to his successors.

During these early years, while Sophia was Regent, Peter had done much to acquaint himself with conditions in foreign countries by travel—making observations which afterward appeared to have broadened his character and to have given him a comprehension of the necessities far beyond other Russians of his time. He went to Amsterdam and worked in a shipyard, and to the village of Zaandam in Holland, where he caused himself to be enrolled among the workmen. He lived here for two months in a hut, making his own bed and preparing his own food, all the while corresponding with his Ministers at home and laboring at the same time at shipbuilding.

He accepted an invitation from William III to visit London, and spent several weeks there, keenly observing everything about him, and learning all he could of trade, manufactures and the arts. He then proceeded to Vienna, but, receiving there intelligence of a new rebellion by the Guards, he returned home and crushed the insurrection, visiting the rebels with fearful punishment. This episode occurred after he had practically come to the supreme power.

Many Reforms Introduced into Russia.

In 1700 he entered upon war with Sweden which lasted for twenty-one years. This long struggle, with its series of victories and defeats, trials and triumphs, would make a book of itself. Suffice it to say that he was defeated by his great rival, Charles XII, at the battle of Narva, in the early days of the war, which proceeded with various results until 1709, when he completely routed Charles at the decisive battle of Pultowa. In the following year the Sultan of Turkey declared war on him,

and he narrowsly escaped capture in the campaign of 1711. This war ended in 1713.

Peter was the first Czar to consolidate within himself not only the political power but the primacy of the church. He suppressed the Patriarchate, which had been so prominent under the first Romanoff, and assumed the dignity himself. Henceforth the Czar of Russia became also the head of the church of the Orthodox faith of the empire.

In 1703 he founded St. Petersburg and began the fortifications of Cronstadt, and from this time to the present the capital of Russia has remained in the great city on the Neva, built by him and which bears his name.

The Complex Character of Peter the Great.

Three years later he married Catherine, a girl of lowly origin and immoral character, of whom more will be said later. She was acknowledged publicly in 1710 and he caused her to be crowned in 1722.

Peter extended the limits of the empire both in Europe and Asia. He changed the face of Russia by his zealous promotion of trade and navigation, manufactures and education; effected an immense change in the manners and customs of the Russians, and after the conclusion of peace with Sweden received the title of "Emperor of all the Russias and Father of his Country."

It has been said of him that, while able to reform others, he never could reform himself, but remained to the last an ignorant, coarse, brutal savage, indulging in the lowest vices, gloating over scenes of cruel suffering. He sometimes put his victims to torture, played judge and executioner, and in a drunken fit would strike off the heads of twenty people in succession, to prove his dexterity with the sword.

He died at St. Petersburg, January 28, 1725, one of the greatest, the most remarkable, and, at the same time, the best and the worst men who have adorned and blotted the history of Russia. The history of no other country presents such a character. Mingling the elements of good and bad, he might well have been the original of the modern creation of that genius of Robert Louis Stevenson, "Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde."

CHAPTER XIV.

THE RUSSIAN EMPRESSES

Catherine I Ascends the Throne—Her Humble Origin—Menzikoff, Her Prime Minister—The Brief Reign of Peter II—Anna of Courland Becomes Czarina—Elizabeth, Daughter of Peter the Great, Crowned Empress—Peter III, Elizabeth's Nephew, Made Czar—His Consort, Catherine, Called "The Great," Succeeds Him—Her Bloodthirsty and Tyrannical Career—Her Immoral Character—The Orloffs—Russian Empire Extended—Catherine's Friendship for America—Her Death.

THE history of Russia is exceedingly rich in dramatic characters. The story of no country is better stocked with material for the novelist and the playwright. In fact, there is an abundance of such literature, but, unfortunately, it is chiefly written in a language almost invariably ignored in the educational institutions of the English-speaking races and therefore is a sealed book. Take, for example, the career of Catherine I, which we are about to consider.

A Peasant's Daughter Becomes Empress.

This woman not only came from the humblest walks of life, but was even an illegitimate daughter of a peasant from the shores of the Baltic, and yet she wore the crown of Russia, and, although her end was as ignoble and humiliating to the history of her sex as her beginning, yet for the most part her career compels the conclusion that she was no common person.

Her entrance into the political life of Russia was purely accidental. In one of Peter's campaigns against Charles XII, among the prisoners of war was a Livonian peasant girl, seventeen years old. She came to one of his generals weeping for the loss of her husband, to whom she had been married only the day before. It is said that the general fancied her and took her for a mistress, but Peter, seeing her, also liked her looks and claimed her for himself.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, he first privately married her and afterwards publicly acknowledged her as his wife, causing her to be baptized into the Greek Church, when her name was changed from Marpha to Catherine, and as such she is known in history.

This young woman, if we may believe the testimony of people who knew her, and which has come down to us in abundance, was no beauty, but the claim that she had no talent cannot be well founded.

Catherine a Devoted Wife.

At any rate it is clear that when Peter first met her in the bloom of her youth she was graceful in person and pleasing in manner. She likewise was amply endowed with common sense and a remarkably sweet temper. She managed to make herself the complete master of the colossal bear to whom she was married. She alone could quiet the Czar in those violent frenzies of passion to which he was subject and in the presence of which all others quailed.

Her devotion to Peter was boundless. She accompanied him everywhere, even on his campaigns, and was ever present in his camps and even on the field of battle. Her courage was never shaken, and in the hour of Russia's greatest reverses she did not falter, so that at times her hopeful courage perhaps saved the Czar and the empire from ruin.

Some nineteen years after Peter's return from his first journeyings, he again set out on a tour through the other countries of Europe, and he took his wife with him. He never seems to have been ashamed of her, but he would not take her to the Court of France, not wishing, it is believed, to subject her to the ridicule and criticisms of the most frivolous capitol in Europe. He therefore left her in Holland when he went to Paris.

The Czar went everywhere in his insatiable thirst for knowledge, speaking as he did all the languages of Europe, and was received at the various courts in a manner befitting his station, for it is said of him that, uncouth savage as he was, he could at times assume the bearing of a polished courtier. He was not ignorant of the rules of etiquette, but usually refused to be handled by the modes of polite society.

A German Princess Criticises the Royal Couple.

On this journey he went to Berlin to visit Frederick of Prussia and, as usual, Catherine went with him. Frederick, being possessed of the same contempt for vanity and luxury which was so marked in Peter, found in the Czar a congenial companion, but the Prussian Queen and the Princesses seemed to have regarded Catherine as quite an "impossible woman."

Some letters, written by the Princess Wilhelmina, have come down to us, in which she handles the royal couple from Russia without gloves.

The young Princess writes: "When Peter approached to embrace my mother, Her Majesty looked as if she would rather be excused. The Czar is tall and well made; his face is handsome; but there is in it a rudeness which inspires dread. He was dressed like a sailor in a frock without lace or ornaments. The Czarina is short and lusty, remarkably coarse and without grace or animation. One need only see her to become satisfied of her ignoble birth.

"At the first blush you would take her for a German actress. Her clothes look as if bought at a doll shop, everything is so old-fashioned, and so bedecked with silver tinsel. She was decorated with a dozen orders and portraits of saints and relics, which occasioned such a clatter when she walked you would suppose an ass with bells was approaching."

Peter's Last Thought.

Still the Princess Wilhelmina must have known that there was something about this woman worthy of more serious consideration, when she was the acknowledged wife of a man who might have formed an alliance with the highest princess of Europe, but who was always content with the woman of his choice.

In fact, ever anxious to exalt her dignity, he founded the Order of St. Catherine in her honor, and when at last he came to his death-bed, as the result of obstinate exposure in the work of rescuing a boat which had been thrown upon the rocks, his last thought was for her.

When too weak to speak, in the death grip of pneumonia, he signalled

for a pen and in trembling hand wrote these words, "Let everything be given to ——".

The sentence was never finished, but Catherine and her party declared that it had been the Czar's intention to leave the throne to his wife, if she survived him, and that his dying effort had been to put this fiat on record. It was a rather slender title with which to bring a peasant woman to the throne of Russia, but like "Mercutio's wound," it was enough.

Catherine Seizes the Throne.

The only son of Peter's second marriage having died in childhood, he left only daughters, and it was supposed by many that the crown would settle upon his favorite child, Anna Petrowna, a beautiful and amiable young princess, but however it may be, Peter being dead, Catherine willed otherwise, and with the aid of her favorite, Menzikoff, she seized the throne.

Catherine I reigned only two years and it would have been better for her fame if she had not reigned at all. Menzikoff, her Prime Minister, was of equally ignoble origin with herself. It is said that in his boyhood he was the servant of a pastry cook who sold cakes about the streets of Moscow. However, although ignorant of letters, Peter had invested him with the highest dignities of State, and now it so happened that the affairs of the empire were left in the keeping of two persons who could neither read nor write.

The haughty old nobility could not reconcile its traditional ideas of the throne, and what it ought to be, with the sway of two such low-born rulers. Menzikoff seems neither to have cared for their scorn nor feared their hatred, but the contempt, ridicule and continual opposition, which relentlessly pursued Catherine, sank deep into her soul and broke her heart. She sought solace in dissipation, and the virtues which had distinguished her during Peter's lifetime seem to have deserted her.

Although her humane disposition deterred her from acts of violence and cruelty, she fell into habits of drunkenness which shortened her days, and she died at the age of thirty-eight.

Contemporary Sovereigns.

It may be interesting to note the contemporary sovereigns who were ruling at the time of the close of Catherine's career, in 1727. Achmed III was Sultan of Turkey, Benedict XIII was Pope, Philip V King of Spain, Louis XV King of France, John V King of Portugal, Frederick William King of Prussia, Charles Albert of Bavaria, Charles VI of Germany, Victor Amadeus of Sardinia, Jivonnia Gastone of Tuscany, Frederick IV of Denmark, Frederick of Sweden, Frederick Augustus I of Poland and George I of England, the latter dying in June of that year.

Catherine Names Her Successor.

At this time the country was divided into factions with the old reactionary party, the Galitzins, Dolgorukis, and other ancient families struggling to control the throne. Catherine, however, by her will, named Peter, the grandson of her husband, as her heir to the crown. He was a lad of eleven years, the son of Alexis, by Peter the Great's first marriage with a woman whom he had always hated.

This Alexis had been brought up in opposition to his father, having imbibed the spirits of opposition from his mother. When he grew to manhood that feeling broke out in open revolt and he was tried for treason and sentenced to death. Immediately after, he died suddenly from poison, and few doubt that his end had been brought about at the instigation of his father.

It was not without some justice, therefore, that Catherine designated his son as her successor, naming, in default of Peter and his issue, her daughter Anna, who had married the Duke of Holstein, and her other daughter Elizabeth, in succession. The country was ruled by a regency, exercised by a council, consisting of the two daughters, the Duke of Holstein, Menzikoff and seven or eight other dignitaries of the empire. Menzikoff still continued to be the all-important personage, and, before Catherine's death, had obtained her consent to a marriage between his daughter and the youthful Peter II, who was to be her heir.

But his authority was gradually undermined by the Dolgorukis and

he was first banished to his estates, and afterward to Berzeoff in Siberia, where he died in 1729. The Dolgorukis were now in the ascendancy and the Czar was betrothed to Natalia, one of this family. He showed every inclination to undo his grandfather's work, and the court was removed to Moscow to the disparagement of St. Petersburg. Soon after, however, in January, 1730, the young prince was seized with smallpox and died.

Anna of Courland Called to the Throne.

The only event of his reign, so far as the outside world was concerned, was the attempt of Maurice, Duke of Saxony, to get possession of Courland, a Russian province, by marrying the Duchess Anna, who was then a widow. She consented to the union, and the States of the province elected him, but Menzikoff sent a body of troops who drove him out. Upon the death of Peter II, at the age of fifteen, various claimants were put forward for the throne.

The two daughters of Peter the Great, Anna, Duchess of Holstein, and Elizabeth were still living. Two daughters of his elder brother, the imbecile Ivan, were also living, Anna, the Duchess of Courland above mentioned, and Catherine who had become Duchess of Mecklenburg. Alexis Dolgoruki also had an idea of obtaining the crown for his daughter Natalia, because she had been the betrothed of the late Czar.

This claim, however, was treated with derision by the high secret council, which resolved to call to the throne Anna of Courland, the niece of Peter the Great, thinking that as she was so much more remote by birth than the daughters of Peter she would more willingly submit to their terms. They had prepared for her signature a constitution similar to that of Poland.

Empress by Act of the High Council.

This constitution provided that the High Council was always to be composed of eight persons, whose members were to be chosen, in case of vacancy, with the consent of the rest of the body, and that the Czarina must consult it on state affairs. Second, without its consent, she could neither make peace nor declare war, could not impose any

tax, alienate any crown lands, or appoint to any office above that of a colonel. She could not cause to be condemned or executed any member of the nobility, nor confiscate the goods of any noble before he had a regular trial. She could not marry nor choose a successor without the consent of the Council. In case she broke any of these stipulations she was to forfeit the crown.

It will be noticed that this constitution resembled in many points the provisions of the Great Charter of England which the barons had forced upon King John at Runnymede. In some points also it resembled the constitution of the United States, giving some powers to the Great Council now lodged in the Senate. Anna assented to these terms, but much against her will, as events soon demonstrated.

She made her entry into Moscow, which was to be her capital, and immediately began to intrigue for her independence of the hated constitution, which became unpopular with the people because it in reality put Russia in the hands of a few powerful families, chiefly the Dolgorukis and Galitzins. She therefore called her supporters together and publicly tore up the document and threw its fragments to the winds.

Thus ended the last constitution which Russia has known, although the adoption of another organic instrument has been frequently discussed, and it is believed that, at the very moment when Alexander II fell a victim to the bomb thrown by a Nihilist, he had decided to promulgate a charter based upon modern constitutions in force under liberal governments.

A Tool in the Hands of the Germans.

Anna was a cold, repulsive woman, whose temper it was said had been soured by the indignities suffered in her youth, and she promptly proceeded to take vengeance upon her opponents right and left. She threw herself entirely in the hands of the Germans, her chief adviser being a man named Biren, a native of Courland, and of low origin.

She banished the Russian nobles from her court, sending some to Siberia, while others were executed. She went so far in the humiliation of the noble families as to abolish the right of primogeniture. She made

herself felt in the politics of Poland, and interfered in the succession upon a vacancy occurring on the Polish throne. She opposed the accession of Stanislaus, who escaped with difficulty from Dantzic.

Then she had a war with Turkey, in conjunction with Austria, which lasted four years, from 1735 to 1739. This campaign was not very successful, but the Russian generals gained the possession of a few towns, when Anna was deserted by Austria, who signed the treaty of Belgrade with the Turks and put the campaign to an end.

She died in 1740, after a reign of exactly ten years, and left the crown to Ivan, the son of her niece Anna, daughter of her sister Catherine, the Duchess of Mechlenburg.

During his minority, Biren was to be regent. A revolt ensued against the German adventurer and he was deposed and sent to exile in Siberia. Matters did not rest here, however, and taking advantage of the general unpopularity of the German faction, the adherents of Elizabeth, the daughter of Peter the Great, resolved to place her upon the throne. The infant sovereign was deposed and placed in close confinement, where he passed the rest of his life.

Peter the Great's Daughter is Crowned.

Elizabeth was then, in 1741, crowned Empress and ruled for twenty years. She was the youngest daughter of Peter the Great and had inherited, apparently, all his worst traits and few of his redeeming characteristics. She began her reign by ingratiating herself with the soldiers, who still venerated the name of Peter the Great. Upon the first night following her coronation she caused the arrest of the entire German faction of the court.

The fate which awaited them, whether death or exile, was ample to put them out of her road in the true Russian fashion which prevailed in these times. She prided herself upon the circumstance that in her reign no one should suffer death, but she dealt out liberally to her enemies the punishment of exile, torture and the knout.

Life at her court must have been delightful! No noble ever went to bed, after having kissed the hand of his smiling sovereign, with full

assurance that he might not be awakened by a detachment of the guard, who would hustle him off to Siberia, the bourne from which there was no return, or, worse yet, to torture in the gate yard. In fact, her declaration of abolishment of capital punishment would seem to have been suggested by a desire that her enemies should suffer the prolonged niceties of torture which seemed to be her special delight.

The Line of Descent Secured to Peter's Heirs.

On ascending the throne she summoned to her court the son of her sister Anna, the Duke of Holstein, who adopted the Greek religion and was declared the heir. In 1744 he married, it is needless to say with the consent of the Empress, the Princess Sophia of Anhalt-Zerbst, who, by her baptism in the Orthodox church, became Catherine. Thus the line of descent was secured to the direct heirs of Peter the Great.

This woman Elizabeth, of narrow, superstitious ideas, depraved morals and profound dissimulation, ruled for twenty years. She was averse to business, fond of pleasure, and left State affairs mostly to her Ministers. At her death she willed the crown to Charles Peter Uric, the son of her deceased sister Anna, as her successor. He came to the throne under the title of Peter III, in 1762.

The new Czar had long been a resident at court, and, sixteen years previously, had married the Princess who, upon her adoption to the Greek church, as mentioned above, had assumed the name of Catherine. She was destined to become one of the most famous and infamous women in history, under the title of "Catherine the Great." She was born in 1729, and even in her youth she was not remarkable for chastity. Her husband, it is said, was even worse, and with the usual inconsistency they mutually reproached each other for their bad habits. Stung by the brutality of her husband, perhaps, she became still more indecorous in her conduct, and finally was incensed beyond measure by his passion for one of his mistresses, the Countess Woromzoff.

The Despicable Character of Catherine.

The reign of this woman was marked by a bloodthirsty, revengeful, selfish, unscrupulously ambitious and tyrannical administration. Stim-

ulated by vanity to the commencement of great undertakings, few of which she ever finished, she was given to a constant intermeddling in the affairs of foreign courts, and in the adoption of customs and maxims of government unknown before her time. During her whole reign she was engaged in wars, mostly of aggression, and was never known to hold a treaty sacred when interest demanded that it should be broken. Her sins against the acknowledged laws of the nation were numerous and appalling.

Historians have united, however, in settling upon the arbitrary partition of Poland as the stupendous crime of her reign. She carried out her policy toward this unhappy kingdom with a persistency and inhumanity far more revolting than that of her allies, Prussia and Austria, and she bore the burden of the lion's share of the outrage which she perpetrated upon the Polish people.

She also took large territories from Turkey and developed a plan for the expulsion of the Mohammedans from Europe. She plotted to set up in the European realms of the Sultan a new government, upon which she proposed to place in authority one of her lovers. She was active in pushing so-called reforms, when they would redound to her own glory, but she seems to have cared nothing for the real good of her people.

She had lovers galore, upon whom in turn she lavished the moneys of the national treasury, yet never had anything with which to relieve the wants of her oppressed and starving people. The details of her private life are too shocking for these pages.

She is said to have possessed beauty of a certain masculine sort and was rather above the medium height, her carriage being majestic.

Though an atheist at heart she was outwardly devout. She made great literary pretensions and, among her works, she wrote a history of her times, but her knowledge was so superficial and her writings of so little merit that they have not been considered worthy of preservation.

Rival Claimants Are Murdered.

She came to the throne without a shadow of right, by the murder of her husband, and took good cause to remove the true heir, Ivan, who ever since the beginning of Elizabeth's reign had been immured in prison. At her instigation he was assassinated.

There was another possible claimant to the throne and she resolved to get rid of her. This young lady was the daughter of the Empress Elizabeth, whose marriage had been a clandestine one to a singer. She lived in the most retired manner at St. Petersburg, where she was being educated under an assumed name.

Prince Radzivill, of Poland, indignant at Catherine for the wrongs she was heaping upon his country, saw in this young woman an instrument of future revenge. Having gained over her guardians, he conveyed her with her governess to Rome.

The Empress took prompt measures to frustrate these designs upon her crown and confiscated the estates of the young lady's patron, so that his only resources in Rome were the money derived from the sale of his jewels, he having fled there with his charge for refuge. His means being exhausted, Radziwill set out for Poland, leaving his ward and her governess in reduced circumstances which he hoped to relieve on his return.

Upon his arrival in Poland, Catherine promised to restore his estates if he would bring the young Princess back to Russia. He refused to comply with this condition, but, as the price of his restoration to fortune, he promised not again to press her claims as an heir to the throne.

Resolves to Destroy Elizabeth's Daughter.

She resorted to the instrumentality of another tool, and induced Alexis, one of the Orloff family, all of whom were pliant and remorseless instruments of her will, to go to Italy and accomplish the ruin of her possible rival.

Alexis went to Leghorn, where he laid a snare for the young Princess through the aid of a base Neapolitan intriguer named Ribas, whom he

sent to Rome, and where the villain introduced himself as an Italian officer who had come to pay his respects to the Princess, in whose fortunes he professed to feel the deepest interest. The young Princess was destitute, and when he offered assistance he was graciously received.

When Ribas had secured the complete confidence of the unsuspecting girl, he declared that he had come commissioned by Alexis Orloff to offer her the throne of Russia, and that if she would consent to marry Orloff he would head a rebellion in her favor.

The young Princess had already been informed by Prince Radzivill of her claim to her mother's throne, and the hopes he had fostered now seemed confirmed, so that with fatal alacrity she yielded to the designs of the conspirators. When, later, Alexis himself came to Rome she gave him a ready welcome, and when, as part of his carefully prepared instructions, he declared that he had fallen in love with her, with the inexperience of a girl of sixteen she readily consented to become his wife.

A Mock Marriage and Its Sequel.

Pretending that he desired to have the marriage performed according to the ritual of the Greek church, Orloff hired some villains to assume the character of priests and witnesses, and a false ceremony was performed. He told his bride that as their stay in Rome exposed them to remark and criticism, their best course would be to go to some other Italian city and there await the insurrection which was promised to place her upon the throne. They went to Pisa, where Orloff hired a splendid palace and where he played the part of tender and devoted husband.

The Russian squadron under Admiral Gregg had entered the Port of Leghorn, and Orloff, professing that urgent business called him there, invited his wife to accompany him. Upon his arrival they took apartments provided for them at the house of the British Consul, where the Princess was treated with the utmost respect, ladies of the highest rank paying her distinguished attention.

She found herself flattered and courted in a brilliant circle, of which she was the center, and she was completely hoodwinked as to the baseness of her pretended husband. In due time the Princess was decoyed

on board one of the vessels of the fleet, being received at the wharf with special honors. She went on board of a boat covered with splendid awnings, where the English Consul and several ladies took seats with her. Count Orloff and Admiral Gregg occupied another boat. As they approached the fleet salutes of artillery were fired and she was greeted with music, the young princess being assured that these honors were paid to her as the heiress to the Russian throne.

When her boat came alongside the ship which she was to enter, a splendid chair was let down, and, seated in this, she was hoisted on deck in great pomp and ceremony. Scarcely had she set foot on deck when she was handcuffed and ordered to descend into the hold. She appealed to her husband for protection, throwing herself at his feet, but he, being simply the tool of Catherine, turned a deaf ear to her entreaties. The next day the ship sailed for Russia, and, upon arriving at St. Petersburg, the Princess was immured in a fortress on the banks of the Neva.

The Mystery Never Solved.

The citizens of Leghorn who had supposed the Princess to be the lawful wife of Orloff, and in good faith had paid her the honors due her rank, were highly indignant at the infamous treatment the young lady had received, and immediately made loud protests. The Court of Tuscany at once complained of the outrage, both to the Courts of St. Petersburg and Vienna. Leopold of Austria made formal protest, and the other rulers entered complaint against Orloff, who, howover, was upheld by Catherine, who unblushingly braved the resentment which the treatment of the Princess had aroused.

What became of the girl is a mystery, although it is generally supposed that she was drowned in the inundation of the Neva which occurred in 1777, although it has been affirmed by some that she was murdered in prison by Catherine's command.

Murders Her Husband.

Among the other acts of Catherine's life which has proved to be a fruitful subject for comment, was the prompt manner in which she disposed of her husband. Being incensed at his conduct she repaired

with the Guard to one of his houses of pleasure, where he was enjoying himself in characteristic excesses in company with his mistress, the Countess Woronzoff, and caused him to be seized and thrown into prison.

A few days later it was reported that he had died of the colic. It was currently reported that his sickness had been induced by poison and his death did not cause much surprise, for, with Russian despots of that time, death was expected to follow under the circumstances, and whether the malady was named "colic" or anything else the result was the same. During all her long reign of wickedness, lasting thirty-four years, she did much to advance the prestige of Russia.

War with Turkey.

In 1767, at the instigation of the King of France, she declared war on Turkey, with the avowed object of aiding the Poles. The Russian general, Galitzin, attacked the Grand Vizier at the town of Khotin, in 1769, and, continuing the campaign in that part of the world, her forces the following year defeated the Khan of the Crimea, the Turkish ally, and in 1770 she won the great victory of Kalgul. In 1771 her armies overran the Crimea, and the infamous Alexis Orloff defeated the Turks in a naval engagement at Thesme on the coast of Asia Minor.

In this expedition the Russians were assisted by the English, who in great numbers entered the naval service of the Empress. In 1774 she signed a peace wherein the Sultan acknowledged the independence of the Crimea. The Russians thus detached this province from the Turkish dominions, and after exercising over it a kind of protectory, added it to their dominions. The Sultan also ceded Azoff on the Don, Kinburn at the mouth of the Dnieper, and the fortified places of the Crimea. The unfortunate Greeks, who in the meantime had been induced to rise against the Turks, were abandoned to their fate.

Other Events During Catherine's Reign.

The year 1771 was also signalized by the outbreak of the great plague at Moscow, and many of its inhabitants perished. Afterwards

occurred a rebellion by the Cossacks of the Don, whose leader declared himself to be the Emperor Peter III. He alleged that he had escaped from the hands of his would-be murderers, and would soon regain his throne. A large band of disaffected peasants gathered round him and he was joined by many of the Mongol races hostile to the Russian rule.

At first the generals sent against him were defeated, the path of the rebels being everywhere marked with bloodshed and pillage. He even got possession of certain towns of importance, including Kazan. If he had been anything other than a vulgar robber, Catherine might have trembled on her throne, but the people, outraged by his cruelties, failed to support him and he was captured, taken to Moscow in a cage, and publicly executed in 1775.

In the same year the Empress put an end to the so-called Republic of the Zaporogian Cossacks, a people who had maintained themselves in South Russia, occupying a territory north of the Black Sea and west of the Don Cossacks.

Catherine prided herself on her learning, and a great codification of the laws took place under her direction, making what has been called the Sixth Period of Russian legislation. The serfs, however, received no benefit by the changes, being still refused the right to make complaints against their masters. In fact, the character of the tyranny of her reign, and the power of the nobility at the time, is illustrated by their right to send their serfs to Siberia as a punishment, or of handing them over to be enlisted in the army. The public sale of serfs was still legal and a matter of every-day occurrence.

The Plans of Peter Carried Out.

Catherine divided the country into governments for better administration of justice, each country being subdivided into districts. She also took away from the monasteries their lands and their serfs, and allotted to them proportionate payments from the public revenues. The plans of Peter the Great in this respect were thus fully carried out, and the Church became entirely dependent upon the State.

A second war with Turkey broke out in 1787, the Ottoman govern-

ment being aroused by suspicions of Catherine's intention toward it by a tour of inspection through the southern provinces of Russia, and especially by a series of interviews with the Emperor Joseph II.

To increase her embarrassment Sweden declared war at the same time, requiring from Russia the cession of the southern part of Finland, which had been taken from her previously. The Empress, however, met with good fortune, both in the contest with the Swedes and with the Turks, and, after a sanguinary battle with the Mussulmans, in 1790, took Ismail, and by the treaty of 1792 gained new territory.

Finally, in 1796, Catherine died without a moment's warning, and the vast empire, whose aggrandizement had been the one dream of her life, passed to her son Paul, the son whom from his birth she had hated and persecuted.

Catherine a Factor in the Birth of America.

Thus passed away this woman, who, by constant intrigues and many wars, in spite of her wickedness, had well defended the confines of her empire, and above all she had destroyed the power of Poland by a second and third partition of this unhappy country, through playing by turns into the hands of France, Prussia and Austria. No sovereign since Ivan the Terrible had extended the frontier of the empire by such conquests. She had given for Russia her boundaries at the Niemen, the Dniester and the Black Sea.

During her reign, by her friendship for John Paul Jones, the American privateer, and through the connivance of Frederick of Prussia, she had encouraged the course of France toward the revolution of the British colonies in America, and thus, indirectly, aided the establishment of the government of the United States.

Thus, while for the most part we find in her character only that which is detestable in personal and political morality, the people of this country cannot forget that perhaps she played an important part in the birth of this republic, which has stood for more than a century and a quarter as the type of personal, political and religious freedom throughout the world.

CHAPTER XV.

RUSSIA DURING THE NAPOLEONIC ERA

The Reign of Paul I—Issues Ukase Limiting Succession to Male Line—His Policy One of Conciliation—His Ignoble End—Alexander I, His Foreign and Domestic Policy—Opposes Napoleon's Despotism—The Battles of Austerlitz and Friedland—French Invasion of Russia—The Retreat from Moscow—Capture of Paris—Overthrow of the Great Corsican—Death of Alexander.

WE NOW come to the reign of Paul I, which began on the 17th of November, 1796, and lasted until the 24th of March, 1801. From this time forward we have no more women upon the throne of Russia. This was due to Paul.

Succession Limited to Males.

Peter the Great was the author of a ukase, which gave to the sovereign the right to name a successor by will, and it is believed that Catherine had intended to deprive her son of the crown and settle the succession upon his eldest son Alexander. One of the first things which Paul did was to repeal this ukase of Peter and promulgate another limiting the succession to the throne to the male line by hereditary descent, the supreme authority to devolve upon a woman only upon the entire extinction of every male heir.

Thus he at least removed the probability in future of another empress coming to the throne by the murder of her husband, as had been the case with Catherine II, who had caused, it will be remembered, the poisoning of Peter III during the first year of his reign, seizing the government herself.

Paul came to the throne at the time of great political activity in Europe, due to the result of the French Revolution and the rapid rise of Napoleon.

It may be interesting to note that his contemporaries were Selim III,

Sultan of Turkey; Pius VI, Pope of Rome; Charles I, of Spain; Frederick-William II, of Prussia; Charles Theodore, of Bavaria; Francis II, of Germany; Ferdinand IV, of Naples; Christian VII, of Denmark; Gustavus IV, of Sweden; William V, of Holland; George III, of England, while George Washington was drawing his second administration to a close in the United States.

Exhumes the Body of His Father.

One of Paul's first acts was to do honor to the memory of his father, Peter III, who had been privately buried by his mother's orders at the monastery of St. Alexander Nevsky. He caused the remains to be exhumed and encased in a gorgeous casket to match that which held the body of Catherine, and proceeded with great pomp to have a joint funeral. The coffins containing his parents' remains were placed close together side by side, covered with an inscription in immortelles which read "Parted in Life, United in Death."

With a refinement of revenge which was quite civilized compared with what Peter the Great would have done, he caused the assassins of his father, the notorious Alexis Orloff and Prince Baradinsky, to walk beside his father's coffin as chief mourners.

A Czar Full of Good Intentions.

Despising his mother's memory, he proceeded to repeal her laws and undo so far as possible the things which she had done in the regulation of affairs at court. He even went so far as to abolish the words "society" and "citizen," a term which Catherine had delighted to roll off the end of her tongue in imitation of the custom at Paris under the Revolutionary leaders.

If he had been brought up right, Paul might easily have been a great man. Through all his youth, however, and up to the time of his accession, when over forty, he had been subject to a policy of suppression. He had been forbidden the court, kept out of the army and in every way possible treated with contumely by his mother and the aristocracy which surrounded her.

It was scarcely his fault then that he came to the throne without

knowledge of his empire, of the science of government, or the art of war. The result was that he did many foolish things and throughout his reign of less than five years was always an uncertain character in domestic and foreign policies.

He began his reign with an evident intention to make his administration one of peace and he publicly proclaimed that Russia, rent and exhausted by half a century of almost constant warfare, needed peace for recuperation.

Leading Events of Paul's Reign.

He probably would have been able to pursue this policy to the end but for Napoleon, the arch disturber of the affairs of Europe. He began a policy of conciliation toward Poland, bringing home many of the exiles from Siberia. He withdrew the Russian army from the frontiers of Persia, and reduced the military levies throughout the empire. He announced to the King of Prussia that he was not in favor of further conquests and dictated a circular which he communicated to the foreign powers, setting forth that although Russia would take no part in the contest with France, the emperor would remain as ever united with his allies, and oppose by all possible means the progress of the mad French Republic, which threatened Europe with total ruin, by the destruction of her laws, privileges, property, religion and manners. He refused armed assistance to Austria, which was alarmed by the sensational victories of Napoleon in Northern Italy.

He recalled the vessels sent by Catherine to join the English fleet to blockade the coasts of France and Holland. He even went so far while friendly with the allies who had united against Napoleon, as to give assurances to France that he desired to live at peace with her and that he would persuade the members of the coalition to end the war, offering the mediation of Russia for the accomplishment of this result.

The operations of France in the Mediterranean, however, soon led him into difficulties with Napoleon and when the latter took Malta, expelling the knights, he invited them to an asylum at St. Petersburg and himself became the Grand Master of the Order. The presence of Na-

poleon in Egypt having at the same time alarmed the Porte, Paul was led, contrary to all the traditions of Russia, to make an alliance with the Sultan of Turkey in opposition to the aggressive policy of France in the Levant.

Internal Dissensions Lead to Paul's Overthrow.

In the meantime troubles were brewing at home due to his own mad eccentricities. He changed the organization of the army, adopting Prussian uniforms, to the intense disgust of the military. He issued orders regulating the manner of dress and the wearing of beards. At the same time he was liberal in exiling the favorites of his mother to Siberia, and speedily caused the growth of a large party of discontents throughout the empire.

The result was a conspiracy for his overthrow, and in a melee at his palace he was seized and strangled, thus coming to an ignoble end and making way for his eldest son, Alexander.

Paul was twice married, first to a Princess of Hesse-Darmstadt, who died early; and again to Maria of Wurtemburg, a princess of rare beauty, talent and virtue. She became the mother of nine children, four sons, Alexander, Constantine, Nicholas and Michael; and five daughters.

Alexander the First is Crowned.

Alexander I came to the throne of Russia just about the time that Thomas Jefferson was inaugurated president of the United States, old George III being still nominally king of England and Napoleon Bonaparte about to seize the power in France as First Consul, which he did the following year.

With the new emperor came a revulsion of foreign policy. The maritime differences as to questions of blockade and right of neutrals were adjusted with England and a reconciliation was effected with George III. Paul's Council of State was dismissed and a new cabinet of younger men with English sympathies was installed. Still Alexander did not intend hostilities with France, but Napoleon was greatly irritated at this abrupt change in Russian policy.

No friend of his could flirt with Brittania.

To this attitude the high-spirited Alexander gave instructions to his minister at Paris which breathed defiance toward Bonaparte, giving him to understand that he could not use Russia as a weapon against England. An elaborate treaty of peace and amity however was made between Napoleon and the Emperor, by which the First Consul promised to do a lot of things which he never did, and no doubt never intended to do, so far as provision was made for the recognition of the rights of various small kingdoms and a policy of evacuation in the Eastern Mediterranean.

The First Steps Toward Universal Freedom.

Alexander was most concerned in the domestic policy of Russia. He set about to inaugurate moral reforms, striving to forget old animosities at home and abroad and to adopt a pacific policy toward all. He soon won the enviable title of the "Prince of Peace." His early reformations were many and great, and that which has given the chief lustre to his name was the abolition of the public sale of serfs. He thus paved the way for the final emancipation, which was a measure very near his heart, but which he could not accomplish, Russia in his day not being ready for this momentous event. He took the initial steps, however, toward universal freedom. He gave to the serfs the right to purchase their own emancipation and with it land to be held in their own names, thus elevating them to citizenship and bringing them into the fold of humanity, which in Russia had been closed to them heretofore. He abolished punishment by torture. He removed many civil and social restraints which had pressed heavily upon the masses, thus, by a spirit of liberality unknown in any Czar before his time, he characterized his reign by many beneficent and praiseworthy acts.

History will no doubt ascribe much of the good in his character to his benevolent and pure-minded mother, who had superintended his education, and who passed her life not only in the zealous rearing of her children, but in mitigating the sufferings of those around her, who were less fortunate, and in founding institutions of charity and universities of learning. It was natural, therefore, that Alexander should be moved

by the woes and sufferings of humanity, and be prompted to do all in his power for the oppressed millions of down-trodden, war-ridden Europe.

The Collision With Napoleon.

It was natural, therefore, that the despotism which Napoleon was trying to force upon Europe under the tri-color of France, must sooner or later bring Russia into collision with the ambitious emperor of the French. The reconciliation which he had attempted came to naught, and the alliance of 1805 between Russia, England, Austria and Sweden for the purposes of resisting the encroachments of the French on the territories of independent states, could only lead to war.

"The Sun of Austerlitz."

The first result was Austerlitz, that famous triumph for France, but an event baleful in its influence upon the peace and welfare of Europe. This is one of the most dramatic battles of the world, so graphically told by Headley, the American historian, and Guizot, the able historian of France. It occurred on the 2d of December and on this field Alexander appeared in person at the head of 50,000 men, but defeated, he was compelled to retreat to his own dominions. Soon, however, he again appeared on the theatre of war.

The scene of conflict was now changed to Poland. On December 26, 1806, was fought the battle of Pultusk, and on the 7th and 8th of February, 1807, that of Eyleau, neither of which engagements was decisive. On the 14th of the following June, however, the Russians were completely defeated at the battle of Friedland, which marked the zenith of Napoleon's glory.

Those of our readers who may visit New York City would do well to go to the Metropolitan Art Gallery and study carefully the great painting of the French artist Meissonier, which depicts with fidelity the crowning moment of this battle. The result of this victory was an interview between the two emperors which led to the famous peace of the treaty of Tilsit, soon to be broken.

The seizure of the Danish fleet by the English occasioned a declara-

tion of war from Russia against that country but hostilities only extended to a bloodless cessation of trade between the two nations. In fact it was of less importance than the now almost forgotten war between the United States and France which during the administration of President Madison did lead to some bloodshed on the sea.

Plans for the Future.

A second meeting between the Russian and French sovereigns took place at Erfurt, September 27, 1808, Napoleon being anxious to secure the friendship of Alexander previous to his contemplated conquest with Spain. While Napoleon was engaged in this undertaking the Russian emperor took the opportunity to make himself master of the Swedish province of Finland.

Alexander burning under the defeats which he had suffered at Austerlitz and Friedland determined to throw off the yoke of Napoleon and began to raise an army. The obvious object of which was the humiliation of France. Napoleon, however, was not asleep and he on his part determined upon the fatal invasion of Russia, which was the crowning mistake of his career. Napoleon was anxious to renew hostilities with Russia and to settle for once and all his differences with Alexander and remove his power as a menace to the schemes of aggrandizement which the French emperor contemplated, chief of which was the overthrow of England.

He did not dare to attack Great Britain without first settling his score with Russia. In the meantime he had formed an alliance with Austria, by divorcing Josephine, and his marriage with the daughter of the Emperor Francis, although his alliance with the Austrian court had been far from giving him the support of the Austrian people. The result of diplomacy which followed was that Napoleon began the attempt to annihilate the Russian power, under the guise of a war for the salvation of Poland. He was careful, however, not to go too far in the reestablishment of the old monarchy at Warsaw, his prime object being, not the liberation of Central Europe, but the conquest of Russia, which he started upon with some preliminary successes.

The Invasion of Russia.

He advanced into the country suffering great losses, but finally decided upon Moscow itself, the traditional capital of ancient Russia, as the key to his invasion. Pressing back the Russian army, he finally arrived upon the heights, from which he was delighted by the sight of the distant city, illuminated by the setting sun, which brought into full relief the oriental brilliance of its palaces and its churches. The army shared his enthusiasm but it was a city of solitude.

The Russian army and the people of the Holy City had left it to be the grave of the Grand Army which had marched so far to reduce it to submission. On the 15th of September, 1812, with the first snows of the Russian winter in the air, the French Emperor entered the deserted streets. Only a few wretched stragglers were left to watch the advance of the conqueror to luxurious quarters in the deserted Kremlin. The next night fire broke out and a storm of wind and rain came on to increase the disorder and discomfort among the French troops. No means were found for checking the conflagration and ruin and devastation followed.

Napoleon found that he had captured an empty city, for the Russian army had escaped him and he desired to make peace. So he wrote a letter to Alexander, at St. Petersburg, with the evident intention of resorting to diplomacy to accomplish his ends and avert the ruin which he saw staring the French army in the face.

End of Napoleonic Rule.

French historians have attributed Napoleon's disaster to the burning of Moscow. This is not true. It was not fire, but hunger, which faced the French army. All the machinery of the city had disappeared. Its markets were empty and there was no food to be had, but the burning of Moscow, which has figured as such a dramatic episode in history, is in fact a French myth. It is true there was fire and plenty of it, but the city was not destroyed and stands to-day practically as it stood before Napoleon ever saw it.

It is not the province of this work to trace the retreat and destruction of the Grand Army upon its return, amid the snow-covered wastes of Russia, in the midst of the storms and freezing cold of the dark days of 1812. The flower of France perished and Napoleon's ambition at Moscow found its ruin, but not by fire.

On joining his army in February, 1813, in Poland, Alexander published the famous manifesto which served as a basis of the new coalition of the European powers against the French Emperor and hereafter Germany, and then France, became the scene of hostilities, culminating in the capture of Paris, April 30, 1814. This was followed by the abdication of Bonaparte and the conclusion of peace.

Alexander visited England in the company of the King of Prussia, and on his return to his own dominions he again busied himself in ameliorating the conditions of his empire. He obtained the duchy of Warsaw and was recognized as the King of Poland by the Congress of Vienna. In November, 1815, he visited Warsaw and there published a constitution for the new kingdom and next to his empire.

Death of Alexander.

His death took place at Taganrog, in the Crimea, December 1, 1825, and he was succeeded by his second son, Nicholas I, his eldest brother, Constantine, resigning to him the right of succession.

Thus came to his end one of the greatest of the Romanoffs, a sincere lover of peace, vigilant, brave and active in war, intolerant in his religious principles, mild, amiable and correct in his private life, yet strict in the administration of justice, a patron of literature and the arts, and though ambitious of power, yet recognizing the spirit of his century and frequently acting in accordance with its highest principles in the recognition of individual liberty.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE FIGHT FOR THE BOSPHORUS

A Born Soldier—His Marriages—Abdicates the Throne—Nicholas I—His Catechisms—Champions the Greeks—An Insurrection—The Crimean War—The Result of a Hasty Policy.

NICHOLAS I came to the throne under peculiar circumstances. He was not the heir and still he received the crown peaceably and by the consent of the man who might presumably have come to the throne and still preferred not to. This singular example of self-abnegation is worthy of explanation.

The Emperor Alexander and his wife had only two children, both daughters, who died in infancy. Of his three brothers, Nicholas, Constantine and Michael, were two, nineteen and twenty-one years younger respectively. The order of succession having been established by the ukase of Paul, the crown naturally devolved on Constantine.

The Childhood of Constantine.

Of all Paul's children he was the only one which resembled his father, the rest inheriting the beauty and disposition of their mother, the German Princess, who so long exercised her benevolent influence at Court, both as the wife of the Tsar and as Dowager Tsarina. In appearance and disposition Constantine was a Kalmuc, except that he was very fair in his complexion, with white eyebrows and deep-set blue eyes. From childhood he had been a curious fellow, and his whimsical oddities had ever been a source of amusement at Court. He had been a great favorite of his grandmother, Catherine II, and she kept him with her a good deal of the time. His mother also had been particularly fond of him, although not so promising nor of so amiable a disposition in childhood as the rest of her family. As he grew up he hated books

and refused absolutely to yield obedience to his tutors, who could not by any possible means induce him to study. He would learn nothing but military tactics and in these he always delighted. When he grew older he was extremely fond of drilling soldiers and was a very martinet in matters of equipment and discipline. He often showed great severity for even a very slight breach of duty or etiquette on the part of a soldier. He declared that he was utterly opposed to war because it spoiled the soldiers' uniforms. He wanted a nice army simply to drill and review.

Early in life, however, he developed real military talent and, when only twenty years of age, he distinguished himself in Italy, and in token of approbation his father gave him the title of Caesarovitch, or Son of Caesar. He was very proud of this title and retained it through life. At the battle of Austerlitz also he showed great personal bravery and began to gain popular favor as an officer.

Although subject to fits of ferocious passion, he was not a bad fellow at heart. He showed great reverence for the memory of his father; was the most tender and respectful of sons to his widowed mother, and he regarded his brother the Emperor with a blind idolatry. He was constantly with him, content to be a mere cipher by the side of the Great Tsar who was so different from him in all respects. He always showed the most loyal and obsequious obedience to Alexander which was not surpassed by any of the Tsar's subjects.

Becomes Governor of Poland.

He also proved that a sympathetic heart lay beneath his rough exterior in the campaign of 1812, when many of the French wounded fell into his hands. If these unfortunate men had been his brothers he could not have treated them with greater kindness.

In 1815 Alexander placed in his hand the military government of Poland, and this circumstance led to a chain of events which controlled his whole life. He started out with an extremely tyrannical rule. He shut himself up in his palace, being visible to the people only at military reviews, but he always took the greatest interest in the internal pros-

perity of Poland, and soon learned to love his adopted country better than his own. The people of this unfortunate nation learned to understand him better, and, seeing that his intentions were good, he even attained to considerable popularity.

A Marriage of Convenience.

When a mere boy of seventeen his grandmother had attended to his marriage. She had selected for him the Princess Julienne of Belgium, the bride at the time being a child of fifteen. There was no affection on either side, and two years after the marriage the couple separated by mutual consent, the young wife returning to her home, being provided for with a liberal pension and the title of Grand Duchess. For many years Constantine showed no inclination to renew his matrimonial experience, but finally he fell madly in love with a young Polish Countess whom he married, having obtained a divorce from his first wife by Imperial ukase.

This lady was endowed with a fragile and delicate constitution, but with great refinement of manner, and mental and moral charms to a remarkable degree.

She seems to have completely changed the rough character of the eccentric Constantine, whose affections never for a moment swerved from their first and only object. He treated his wife with chivalrous devotion and tenderness to the end, and for her sake it was that he resigned the throne of Russia.

Constantine Relinquishes His Title.

His wife not being of royal birth the marriage was what is called "by the left hand," and Alexander only consented to it with the understanding that Constantine at the same time relinquished his title to the crown. It is probable that the Tsar, appreciating the fantastic character of his brother, was convinced that it would not be for the best interests of the empire for him to rule it, and, possibly, feared that his acts, should he come to the throne, might create the same sort of disturbance which had marked the unfortunate reign of his father.

However this may be, he seems to have made this marriage a pretext for excluding Constantine from the succession, and it is only fair to say that the latter seems never to have regretted the result of the compact. The agreement had been secret, probably known only to the Emperor, his mother and the two brothers most concerned. The act of abdication was duly signed, sealed and deposited with the Council of State, to be opened only after Alexander's death.

During his last illness Alexander had gone to the Crimea where the result was awaited with great anxiety, his condition being well understood by the public. Near the end he apparently made a remarkable change for the better, and a service of thanksgiving was ordered in the Royal Chapel, but in the midst of the Te Deum a messenger arrived and entering the church announced Alexander's death. The Empress-Mother fainted from the shock and her first words upon recovering were, "Poor Russia." She probably feared that Constantine would repent his act of abdication and that strife for the crown might ensue.

Constantine Proclaimed Emperor.

In this she was mistaken. Nicholas, however, demonstrated his willingness to avoid a struggle over the succession, and at once took the oath of allegiance to Constantine who was the lawful heir, and who was that very day proclaimed Emperor. Messengers were sent to Poland to see Constantine, and after an interim of three weeks, documents came from him confirming his resignation in the most emphatic and solemn manner, and offering his allegiance to his brother Nicholas. Constantine seems to have taken this step freely and there were many reasons which moved him to this course.

He probably realized that he was unfit to rule so vast an empire, and he knew also that his wife, a Roman Catholic, and not of royal birth, could never be received at the Russian Court with the honors due to an Empress, and that his children would be ineligible to the succession. Furthermore he had become more greatly interested in Poland than in Russia, and he prized above all things the quiet of his domestic life at Warsaw.

Death and Exile.

Curiously enough, Nicholas was obliged to face an insurrection against him at the very outset of his reign. None of the three brothers had been very popular in Russia, but Constantine was the favorite of the army, and the military party declared for him. Many citizens of the capital joined in revolt, feigning disbelief in the statement that Constantine had relinquished the throne of his own accord. Then, too, a prejudice against the autocracy had been steadily gaining ground for years and the country was ripe for rebellion, so that the alleged usurpation of Nicholas merely formed a convenient pretext. The new Emperor suppressed the uprising with great vigor and cruelty, and for the first time in eighty years the death penalty was restored, and many of the best and bravest men of the leading families of Russia perished on the scaffold, as the price of treason. Many more were sent into exile to Siberia, and for years Nicholas, who was implacable, continued to exile prominent people by the score for he never forgave or forgot the sin of disloyalty.

An Absolute Despot.

This attempt at revolution was unfortunate for Russia, because it embittered the mind of the Emperor who resolved to govern by his absolute will, an autocrat in the broadest sense of the word. He made himself the absolute despot. He loved Russia as a whole and desired her highest good, but he wanted to reform her in his own way and through himself, and he grew to believe himself infallible. It is said that he wished to abolish serfdom, but he dare not do it, for, with all his obstinacy, he was vacillating in purpose and usually failed to carry out plans which he formed.

The Imperial Catechism.

He prepared a catechism which was published for Russian children by his order in 1832. This text book was entitled "The Worship That Should be Rendered to the Emperor," and the following is a sample question: "How ought want of respect and fidelity toward the Emperor to be regarded?"

Answer, "As the most detestable sin, as the most horrible crime."

In another place in this catechism it is declared that disobedience to the Emperor is the same as disobedience to God himself, who will recompense homage and obedience to the Emperor in another world, and punish severely, throughout all eternity, those who fail to render them.

And this was in vogue in the middle of the nineteenth century in a country regarded as enlightened.

Rigid Press Censorship.

He introduced a severe censorship of the press, a custom still in vogue in Russia, which weighs heavily upon the development of publication. The period, however, was fertile in literature, especially in the field of poetry and romance, and the stage flourished. In 1826 the perpetual quarrels between Russia and Persia on the subject of the frontiers and the vassal tribes culminated in war. The Prince Royal of Persia was sent at the head of an army to march on Tiflis, but he received a check at the Fortress of Choucha by a heroic resistance which lasted for six weeks. The Russians thus had time to concentrate their forces, and at Elizabethpol defeated the Persian advance eighteen thousand strong, having in their own army only ten thousand men, and with the same force dispersed the Persian main army forty-four thousand strong, pushing the remnant in retreat across the Araxes River. After continued successes the Russian commander set out for Teheran, the Persian capital, but the Shah in alarm hastened to make a treaty of peace which was signed February 22, 1828. By this war Russia gained two provinces and an indemnity of twenty million, and important commercial advantages to Russian subjects in Persia. The River Araxes became the frontier.

The Eastern Question.

The war came very near being renewed the following year through the massacre of the Russian Legation at Teheran, but it was averted by prompt disavowal by the Persian government, and the further fact that Nicholas was engaged in war with Turkey. The result, however,

was that Persia became day by day more subject to Russian influence, to the great disgust of England, where the so-called Eastern question was taking possession of the public mind, and the dread of Russia's advance toward India became the British bugaboo which it has remained to the present day.

Nicholas Issues an Ultimatum to the Porte.

Nicholas became the ardent champion of the Greeks, and insisted that the Sultan should put an end to the policy of extermination, and demanded satisfaction for bloody outrages which had been inflicted on Orthodox Christians from time to time, with ever increasing frequency. In March, 1826, he presented his ultimatum to the Porte demanding the evacuation of the Danubian Principalities, the autonomy of Servia, and other things, all tending to diminish the prestige of the Sultan in his European dominions, and a guarantee of the rights of the Orthodox Christians. The other powers of Europe interested themselves in the cause of the Greeks, especially the English Government. The French also energetically supported the Tsar in the demand for Greek autonomy. The Porte resisted these demands and sent an army to the lower peninsula of Greece. Charles X, of France, who was the friend of Nicholas, ordered the landing of troops to resist the Turks, and the French navy fell upon the Turkish squadron, and, at the battle of Naverino, destroyed it. Turkey now declared war on the Powers, and the Russian army advanced to attack the Porte's dominions in both Europe and Asia. Wallachi and Moldavia were occupied, the Danube was crossed, and Shumla, the famous Russian stronghold, was taken. In Asia the Russians stormed the Fortress of Kars. The war ended in a peace at Adrianople, by the terms of which Russia got a little territory about the mouth of the Danube, and the independence of Greece was recognized. This was in 1829.

The Spirit of Revolution.

In the meantime troubles of a serious nature beset Nicholas on every hand. In 1830 the Asiatic cholera invaded the country, reaching

Moscow with dire results. Worse than all was the trouble in Poland. The spirit of revolution, which was ripe all over Europe, could not but make itself felt in a country whose history from the earliest times had been one of political turmoil. The growth of secret societies, which had their nest in Paris, undermined every other government on the continent, and were specially flourishing in Poland and Russia, where a sort of underground revolution was prepared and smoldered, only waiting for a convenient opportunity to break out. The Poles had several grievances against Constantine, the Tsar's brother, as well as the Emperor himself. They clamored for the restoration of their old constitution; the army desired to take part in the war against Turkey, and the Poles wished to have the Lithuanian provinces restored to their kingdom.

The Rebellion at Warsaw.

All these aspirations had been denied them under Constantine, and finally, on the 17th of November, there was an open insurrection at Warsaw headed by a party of students, and pandemonium broke loose; the palace was attacked and Constantine himself barely escaped. Of course, the Emperor Nicholas could not brook such doings, and he immediately proceeded to put down the revolt. It cost a bloody war and the better part of a year to accomplish it, but when he was through there was no more Poland on the map.

This insurrection had resulted, among other things, in developing a pronounced hostility to the French who had deposed Charles X and placed Louis Philippe on the throne. The Tsar considered that the chief cause of the rebellion had been the influence of French revolutionary ideas, and he became the outspoken enemy of the Paris Government. In December, 1832, when Nicholas went to the aid of the Sultan, with a view to driving back the Egyptians who threatened Constantinople, France protested, and, in company with England, interfered, causing the withdrawal of the Russian forces and also the retreat of the Egyptian army. This interference of the Western nations led to an offensive and defensive alliance which practically made Turkey

dependent upon the Tsar. In the face of the protest, however, the treaty was never executed.

The Coalition of the Great Powers.

When the war between Egypt and Turkey was renewed, in 1839, France taking sides with the former, England deserted her because she was anxious, as she always has been, to maintain the integrity of the Ottoman Empire. The English Government, therefore, joined the conspiracy with Russia, whose aim was to exclude France from the assembly of European Powers, and in July, 1840, the treaty of London was concluded between Great Britain, Russia, Austria and Prussia, by which France was isolated, and therefore could not proceed with her designs in Egypt, unable to face such a coalition.

England was soon compelled, however, to again change her alliance in order to save Constantinople from falling into the hands of Russia.

The Schemes of the Russian Emperor.

Nicholas could not escape the shock of the revolutions of 1848, which shattered the foundations of every continental power. The uprisings in Germany, Hungary, Italy, France and the Danubian countries were infectious, and the spirit of revolt against the monarchical system which had caused these disturbances spread throughout the Russian Empire. The Tsar had of necessity to take up arms to defend his authority and unite with the Emperor of Austria in the suppression of a combined insurrection by the Hungarians and Poles. In the meantime, Turkey, encouraged by France, seemed about to break loose from the Tsar's influence and revoke his right of protectorate over the Eastern Christians which had been assured to him by the peace of Adrianople. He therefore demanded new guarantees, which the Porte refused. England hesitated to take part in the quarrel, but on the 9th of January, 1853, two private interviews between Nicholas and the British Ambassador revealed to the latter's government the ultimate aim of all the Emperor's schemes. His object was nothing less than to wind up Turkey and form independent states on the Danube under Russian

protection, and establish himself at Constantinople. England was to be allowed to take such territories as suited her convenience, provided she did not include Constantinople. Nicholas suggested to the British Minister that they unite their forces for carrying out this plan, without reference to how the proceeding might be relished by France or Austria.

The Emperor flattered himself that he could carry his day with the English because the idea never entered his head that Napoleon III could bring about an alliance with Great Britain with the memory of Waterloo still rankling in the French mind. He therefore imprudently confided his plans to the British Ambassador and made such an alliance possible. England took fright at the prospect of the Tsar commanding the Dardanelles and turned to France to urge her to more energetic measure in the East.

Russia Face to Face with Europe.

On the 3d of July, 1853, Nicholas set out in earnest on this scheme of Russian aggrandizement, his army crossing the frontier. England and France gathered their fleets in the vicinity of Constantinople and awaited results. Turkey brought matters to a crisis by demanding that Russia evacuate the Danubian Principalities, and precipitated war. On November 30, 1853, the destruction of the Turkish fleet by the Russian Admiral at Sinope destroyed all hope of localizing the war, and the French and English fleets having entered the Bosphorus, now sailed into the Black Sea and obliged the Russian warships to withdraw into ports. The superiority of the navy of the Allies enabled them to attack Russia in all her seas. In the Black Sea they bombarded the Port of Odessa in April, 1854, and in the Baltic they blockaded Cronstadt, and, disembarking, took the Fortress of Bomarsund in August. In 1855 they made hostile demonstrations in the White Sea, and on the Pacific they blockaded the Siberian ports and threatened the position of the Russians on the River Amur. Austria and Prussia likewise made an alliance, offensive and defensive, and the former concentrated an army along the Russian frontier. Thus Nicholas found himself practically face to face with the rest of Europe.

Tired of the Situation.

The Russians, menaced by the Austrian concentration on the Danube, and by the disembarkation of the French and English at Gallipoli and Varna respectively, made a desperate attempt to take Sillistria, but failed after a siege lasting from April to July. In the meantime the French operations on the lower Danube had no military results, but the army was wasted by cholera and fevers. All the contending Powers seemed to be tired of the situation, and the Russians fell back from the Danube, the Austrians taking possession of the Principalities through an understanding with the European Powers and the Sultan.

With the close of the war on the Danube, however, that of the Crimea began.

The Crimean War Begins.

The generals of the English, French and Turkish armies held a counsel at Varna in July and resolved upon the campaign. On the 14th of September five hundred ships landed the expeditionary troops, and on the 20th the battle of Alma was fought, in which the Russians were defeated and the way to Sebastopol was opened.

This was a shock to Russia. Since the ill-fated expedition of Napoleon to Moscow in 1812 no enemy had ever set foot on her soil. The Crimea, protected by a formidable fleet, impregnable fortresses and a large army, had been deemed secure from all attack. Now the army was beaten, the Black Sea fleet which had retreated to the harbor of Sebastopol served only to obstruct the channel. Sebastopol itself was so badly protected and armed that undoubtedly the allies could have stormed it immediately upon their arrival, but their delay gave time for its fortification. The Russians set to work soldiers, sailors and citizens and in a few days reared a rampart of earthworks with a marvelous exhibition of skill and activity. The redoubts and ramparts of the Center of the Mast, of the two Redans, and of the Malakof, afterwards celebrated in history, all rose as if by magic, bristling with guns taken from the useless fleet. Fourteen or fifteen thousand sailors

came to reinforce the garrison. The three Russian admirals, all destined to die on the bastion of the Malakof, directed the defence.

Balaklava and Inkermann.

The Allies had marched on the Port of Balaklava which they had captured as a base of supplies. They took up a position on the south side of the city, while by the bridges over the great harbor on the north side the beleaguered place communicated freely with the Russian field army, from which it could constantly receive supplies and reinforcements. It was, in fact, less a city besieged by an army than two armies intrenched opposite each other and keeping all their communications open. Several times the Allies were interrupted in their siege operations by the Russian field army and they had to give battle at Balaklava in October, at Inkermann in November, and at Europatia the following February.

While the Allies dug trenches, sapped and mined, gradually boring their way into the Russian possession, their industrious enemy also strengthened the fortifications and built new ones. The Allies were obliged to undergo the hardships of a severe winter, but they established themselves more and more strongly in this little corner of the Crimea where they faced all the forces of the Russian Empire.

Death of Nicholas.

In the meantime, in the midst of the siege, in March, 1855, Nicholas died, and left to his son and heir, Alexander II, the enormous difficulties which beset the country. The new Emperor was thirty-seven years old at the time, and he was well fitted to cope with the complicated situation which faced him.

His first care was to terminate upon honorable conditions the war which was exhausting Russia. Negotiations were at once opened, through the Court of Vienna, with a view to a settlement of this so-called Eastern question. The Western Powers could not agree upon the guarantees to be exacted from Russia. France demanded the neutralization of the Black Sea, or the limitation of the number of vessels which the Tsar might keep in it.

A Bad Outlook for the New Emperor.

In the meantime the siege continued, Sardina took a hand in the game and sent twenty thousand men to the East. Austria had engaged in December, 1854, to defend the principalities of the Danube against Russia, and Prussia had agreed to protect Austria. Napoleon III and Queen Victoria made visits to each other at their respective capitals. All together things did not look pleasant for Alexander II.

On the night of May 22 the Russians made two sorties from Sebastopol, which were repulsed, and the Allies retorted by an expedition, destroying several military establishments and occupying the Sea of Azof, thus leaving the Russians but one base of supplies and greatly crippling their enemies. In the meantime also the Turks induced the Circassians to revolt. Finally, June 7, after all the weary months which had elapsed from the previous autumn, the French took by assault three redoubts, and on the 18th the French assailed the Malakof, while the English charged the Redan. They failed to carry these works, being repulsed with a loss of over three thousand men.

The Russians displayed a tenacious bravery and reckless intrepidity which set at naught the most strenuous efforts of the Allies to rout them from their position. They thus maintained themselves against English, French and Italians until the 10th of September, when Sebastopol fell after a siege of three hundred and thirty-six days. The last twenty-eight days of the siege the Russians lost eighteen thousand men. A million and a half bullets, bombs, shells and grenades had been thrown into the town. The French had dug fifty miles of trenches and over four thousand feet of mines before one bastion alone. They had pushed their lines to one hundred feet of the Malakof.

The Evacuation of Sebastopol.

The firing was so heavy that it was distinctly heard for a distance of sixty-two miles. Under this fusillade the Russian bastions crumbled, bomb-proofs were smashed, and their gunners fell by hundreds while

serving their pieces. The garrison was so hard pressed that they had no longer time to repair breaches made by the batteries. As many as seventy thousand projectiles were fired into the town in a single day. Finally, on the 8th of September, the batteries suddenly ceased firing at twelve o'clock, and the French threw themselves on the Malakof, gaining a lodgment and holding their position in spite of all efforts to drive them out. Sebastopol was no longer tenable and the following day the evacuation began, the Russians burning and blowing up everything in their rear, retreating to the north side of the harbor.

Russia did not yet, however, seem ready to submit, and the Emperor Alexander encouraged bravery in his troops by staying with the army. But it could no longer be disguised that Russia must have peace. The war had cost 250,000 men, the banks paid only in paper money, and the public refused that of the government. Public credit was at the lowest ebb. Finally a Congress was called to meet at Paris on the 25th of February, 1856.

France, England, Austria, Prussia, Sardinia, Turkey and Russia were parties to it. A peace was signed on the 30th of March following, by the terms of which Russia renounced her exclusive right of protection over the Danubian Principalities, and all interference with their internal affairs. The free navigation of the Danube was to be secured by the establishment of a Commission in which all the contracting parties should be represented. Each of them should have the right to station two sloops of war at the mouth of the river. Russia consented to a rectification of frontiers which should leave to Turkey and Roumania all the delta of the Danube; the Black Sea was made neutral and her waters opened to merchant ships of all nations, but men of war were forbidden, whether of the Powers on her coasts or of any others. No military or marine arsenals were to be created there. Russia and Turkey could only maintain ten lightships to watch the coast. The Sultan of Turkey was bound to permit free religious privileges to his non-Mussulman subjects, but this clause was not to be construed to give the Powers the right to interfere between the Sultan and his subjects.

The Result of the Crimean War.

Thus, as the result of the Crimean War and the Treaty of Paris which formulated it, Russia lost the domination of the Black Sea and the protectorate of the Eastern Christians.

The fruits of the policy of Peter I, Catherine II and Alexander I, which had aimed at unlocking Russia by a port on the unfrozen sea were, therefore, annihilated by this document. The hasty policy of Nicholas had compromised the work of two centuries, and with it lost to Russia valuable domains which she was destined afterward to shed much blood to recover.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE STRUGGLE FOR THE UNFROZEN SEA

The Serfs Liberated—Internal Disturbances—Russia Advances Into Asia Minor—The First Pacific Port—Relations Between Russia and the United States—War with Turkey—The Emperor Assassinated—The Reign of Alexander III—His Son Ascends the Throne.

ALEXANDER II came to the throne of a prostrated and humiliated empire. The first step necessary was the recuperation, under peace, but in the effort to carry out this benign policy the new Emperor was beset on every hand by internal turmoils and foreign suspicion.

White Slavery Abolished.

One of the first things he resolved upon was to carry out the policy of Nicholas with reference to the serfs and do what his father had desired, but could not accomplish, namely, to abolish white slavery altogether. This was accomplished in 1861. Internal disturbances recurred constantly, and in 1863 there was a rebellion by the Poles. Having suppressed this insurrection with some difficulty, and the road to the Mediterranean being blocked as the result of the Crimean War, Alexander turned his attention toward extending his empire in Asia Minor. The Caucasus had been pacified in 1859 by the capture of the famous Circassian chief, Schamyl, and those of his people who could not abide by Russian rule migrated to Turkey, where they have ever since formed one of the most lawless and turbulent elements in the motley empire of the Sultan.

In 1865 the Russians took the city of Pashkene, and the government of Turkestan was established in 1867. These advances into Asia Minor greatly alarmed England, and a large percentage of the British nation from that day to this has never been able to recover from the conviction that Russia's real object was and is to seize India. During all these

years the British press has been in a state of periodical alarm. Russia, however, has still advanced her frontiers, and in fact continues to do so, except that at the present moment the field of operations is in the Far East instead of toward India, and the Arabian Gulf.

Treaty with China.

In this connection it may be stated that Alexander II made a very long step toward the East when, in 1858, he made a treaty with China which recognized the authority of Russia throughout all that vast region on the left bank of the River Amor, clear to its mouth, near which he established the first port on the Pacific at Vladivostok.

Perhaps the commercial aspirations of the empire would have been satisfied with this achievement but for the fact that during four months of the year this port is blocked with ice, and its possession did not relieve Russia from the position of a land-locked empire.

America and Russia on Good Terms.

It was during the reign of Alexander II that the relations between the United States and Russia became especially friendly. This government and the Autocracy had always from the start been on good terms. It is said that even during our revolution Catherine II, with Frederick the Great, connived at the loss of England's American colonies, and had encouraged France to lend us money and send the fleets of D'Estang, and the army of Rochambeau, which wound up the conflict at Yorktown. We never had done much business with Russia, and it must be admitted that for the first eighty or ninety years of our existence as an independent nation our relations had been rather formal and our friendship purely official and perfunctory. Perhaps the fact that England was always opposing the aspirations of the Tsar, we naturally wished the Russians well, so long as the recollections of our old trouble with the mother country rankled in the breasts of the American people.

Attitude of Russia During the Civil War.

When we came face to face with a colossal civil war of our own, in 1861-65, our foreign relations took such a turn that the American people

became the fast friends of Russia, and that sentiment has grown up with the present generation so that the unfortunate circumstances of the past two or three years which have brought an estrangement gave public sentiment in this country a decided and unpleasant shock.

Hostility of the British Government.

The success of the Union cause was constantly menaced by the hostility of the British Government. The English Prime Minister unquestionably desired to recognize the Southern Confederacy. The commercial interests of Great Britain were greatly injured by the war. At that time she was the principal manufacturing nation of the world, and one of her principal industries was in cotton. The spinners of Manchester clamored for raw material. The American blockade closed the ports of the Confederacy. The cotton was locked up. The success of the Union also meant the abolition of slavery in the South. It was believed that without slave labor cheap cotton could not be produced to supply English mills. Furthermore, British investors bought millions of dollars' worth of bonds of the Southern Confederacy, furnishing the Davis government in return quantities of ammunition, which found its way into the Southern States through the blockade at Wilmington; thus, for example, Lee's army left on the battlefield of Gettysburg thousands of boxes of musket-cartridges and shells in British cases. All this embittered the North toward England, and after the war was over the people of the South were likewise displeased because the British Premier had not done what we feared he would do, that is, lead the way toward a European recognition of the Southern Confederacy, and the establishment of the independence of the Richmond Government.

Our ancient friend, France, was an empire under Louis Napoleon, and hostile, having designs for the extension of French conquests on the Western Hemisphere.

Russian Fleet Enters New York Bay.

In this predicament, and when the North was so oppressed, Alexander II came to Mr. Lincoln's relief and sent to New York and to San Francisco a splendid fleet, at that time formidable, as compared with

the rest of the world, and gave the London and Paris governments to understand that they must keep their hands off the American fight, or else Russia must be reckoned with as an active participant in the contest.

This act of Russia has never been forgotten, and when the two and a half millions of young men who had worn the blue uniform went back to the walks of peace, they reared children who were taught that Russia had come to the relief of the cause for which their fathers fought when help was sadly needed.

Russia-America Sold the United States.

This was what caused the friendship between the two governments of Washington and St. Petersburg.

In 1867 also, while Mr. Seward was still Secretary of State, Alexander II sold us all Russian America, that vast area which added one-third to the territory of the United States and gave us command of the Pacific Ocean at the expense of Great Britain.

Alexander II began to construct the great railroad system in Asia which now, practically finished, stretches seven thousand miles from the Caspian on the west to the Sea of Japan on the east.

Two Attempts Upon the Czar's Life.

However sagacious and amiable was the Tsar, he could not create a condition of loyal satisfaction among his own people. Constant attempts were made upon his life, and April 16, 1866, he was shot at by a man named Karakozoff in St. Petersburg. In the following year another attempt upon his life was made by a Pole named Berezowski, while Alexander was in Paris on a visit to Napoleon III.

Russo-Turkish War.

The principal war of Alexander's reign was that with Turkey, in 1877-78. Ever since the Crimea, which had fastened Turkish authority upon the principalities of the Danube, which were largely Christian, almost continuous complaint was made on account of Moslem persecu-

tions. The Turkish Government either connived at, or at least permitted, murders, burnings, and all sorts of inhuman practices by her officials and irregular troops. So loud became these complaints and so frequent the outrages that the civilized world became deeply interested in the affairs of the Balkan States, and especially in the fate of the Christians of Bulgaria. Mr. Gladstone thundered against the horrible Turk. The German court made representations and Gortskakoff, the Tsar's Prime Minister, threatened. The Bulgarian cry never abated. Finally the Tsar decided that he would resort to force, and at the same time no doubt flattered himself that the opportunity had at last come for seizing Constantinople and opening a free road to the Mediterranean and the Atlantic, with a port whose waters never froze.

A great army was hurled upon Turkey, crossing the Danube in the face of fierce opposition at Widim and Rusdchuck, and pressing on toward the Balkan passes. Although successful at every step, it was no trifling matter to conquer the so-called "sick man." The Turkish army proved to be made of valiant stuff. The losses were heavy, and the winter found the Russians struggling in the snows of Shipka Pass under Ghourka and the splendid Skobeleff, while Osman Pasha held Plevna in spite of the gallant assaults of the greatest army Russia ever put in the field.

The Lesson of Plevna.

The assault upon Plevna emphasized the lesson which military men had failed to thoroughly learn before. It had been seen that the English and French could not storm the Malakof and the Redans in 1855; Grant's splendid army had been repulsed in 1863, when it tried to climb the works of Vicksburg and Port Hudson; the magnificent charge by moonlight on Fort Wagner had only resulted in death and destruction to its assailants, and still the vast host of Russia were sent forward by its intrepid commanders to do the impossible at Plevna.

The assault failed, as it had failed at Sebastopol, Vicksburg and Wagner. Military students at last agreed upon the proposition that a modern earthwork bravely defended by a competent force cannot be carried by assault.

Osman Pasha Surrenders.

The Russians settled down to a long winter siege, and it was months later when Osman Pasha finally yielded to starvation and surrendered. The Russian force pressed forward, and in 1878 camped under the walls of Constantinople.

The unfrozen sea was in sight. A treaty was made with Turkey at San Stefano only to be torn to pieces at the dictation of Bismarck and Disraeli at the Congress of the powers at Berlin. The result of it all was that Russia practically got nothing as the reward of blood and treasure squandered in this last attempt to expel the Turk from Europe. The arrangement of the Balkan States then made still exists. Bulgaria was divided, the southern portion being formed into the province of Eastern Roumelia, with a Christian Governor to be appointed by the Porte. Austria acquired a Protectorate over Bosnia and Hercegovina. Servia and Montenegro remained independent, while Macedonia and Albania were still left to the tender mercies of the Turk.

Russia was more fortunate, however, in Asia, gaining considerably in area of possessions, pressing her conquests up to the very frontier of Afghanistan, to the disgust of the Court of St. James. In fact, the cry, "The Russians at the gates of Herat," almost became a slogan of battle, and Great Britain and Russia for years thereafter trembled upon the brink of war.

Growth of the Revolutionary Movement.

The growth of the Nihilist or secret revolutionary party in Russia was extremely rapid during the latter part of Alexander's reign, and all efforts to suppress these societies effectually seemed to come to nothing. A third attempt was made upon the life of the Emperor when, April 14, 1879, a man named Solovioff shot at him. The same year an effort was made to wreck the train by which the Tsar was traveling from Moscow to St. Petersburg. Finally, as the result of a conspiracy, he was murdered March 13, 1881, by the explosion of a dynamite bomb thrown at his sleigh, while driving in the Newsky Prospect in St. Peters-

burg. Although horribly mangled, he lived to speak to the miscreant who threw the infernal machine and some hours later expired, surrounded by his family.

Thus ended the career of a man whose life was one of turmoil and trouble from the start of his reign. There is no doubt that he wished to do the best possible for his country, and having freed the serfs he was actually upon the point of proclaiming a constitutional government at the very time when he fell a victim to the mad policy of those implacable theorists who believe that the killing of lawful rulers is the sure way to the cure of human ills.

Alexander III Ascends the Throne.

Alexander III succeeded to the throne, and, while an amiable man, he lacked the comprehensive views of his predecessor. He pressed forward the work of constructing the Trans-Caspian railway, but otherwise he was chiefly occupied in his self-appointed mission to more thoroughly establish throughout the empire the Holy Orthodox Greek Church of Russia. In keeping with this plan, he endeavored throughout his reign to keep all power in his own hands, and to control absolutely his ministers. He found the task of personally governing an empire stretching one-third the way round the earth to be a task beyond human endurance. The effort killed him in the prime of his manhood. Although naturally a giant in stature, he had been endowed with physical strength unsurpassed by any man of his generation. In his private life, the Emperor was an exemplary man. He married a daughter of the King of Denmark, a sister of the present Queen of England, and King of Greece.

Character of the Czar.

In religion he was not only devout but almost a fanatic. He allowed the idea of church supremacy to take such possession of him that, though of a kindly disposition, he was led into persecution against Jews, Lutherans, Mennonites, and other non-conformists. He carried the matter so far that people were sent into exile because of religious insubordination. The Emperor was, no doubt, well meaning and con-

scientious, but, as a Russian writer has said, he was like an apothecary who should dispense strychnine for quinine, and whose conscientiousness could not save the victim of his mistake. The result was that the most kind-hearted of men became a cruel persecutor. One of the Emperor's decisions that bore very hard upon a large number of respectable families was not to permit the employment of any but Orthodox Russians in positions of responsibility, and especially upon railroads, where, by superior education and intelligence, a large proportion of employees such as inspectors, station-masters, conductors and engineers were Poles, Germans from the Baltic Provinces, and other non-conformists. As the railroads in Russia are under government control, the lines were drawn closer and closer until these offensive religionists were finally all dismissed. One of the last roads upon which the un-Orthodox were discharged to make places for members of the State Church was the road to Smolensk, and soon after it happened a plot was discovered to blow up the Tsar's train on this line. This was in 1894.

Enter Nicholas II.

The discovery of this mine was a mere accident, but the inquiries that followed showed a carefully-laid plot, in which numerous conspirators had planned to kill the Tsar, and, without exception, these conspirators were found to be Orthodox Russian officials. It was for these men that the Tsar had caused to be dismissed the mistrusted Poles and Germans. The discovery of this fact, which was established beyond a doubt, dispelled in a moment the fondest illusions which had controlled the policy of Alexander's administration from the first. The discovery killed him. His health began to fail, and he sank day by day under a complication of ailments which had their origin in the moral afflictions caused by a sense of realization that all he had done had been for nothing. He had persecuted, exiled, banished, punished, and suppressed and oppressed his people for the sake of the Church, and then it was an empty disappointment. This failure of an honest man was pathetic. Finally he died, at Lividia, having as the most consoling thing in his latter days arranged for the happy marriage of his son Nicholas II, who succeeded him November 1, 1895.

CHAPTER XVIII.

NICHOLAS II

A Puny Boy—Falls in Love with a Ballet Dancer—Travels Abroad—Attempted Assassination—The Meaning of Loyalty—The Mikado Orders the Would-be Murderer to be Executed—Marriage—Coronation—A Disciple of Peace—Finland—Character of Nicholas II.

WE HAVE now traced the history of Russia briefly but as completely as the space allotted in this work will allow. We have seen at the dawn of historical records the beginnings of the Slavs when they were simply barbarous tribes. We have watched the Asiatic migrations of antiquity and those of the Middle Ages when the hordes of Genghis-Khan and Tamerlane overran the country, leaving the Tartar imprint upon the nation and its institutions. We have traced the line of Rurik and then the rise of Moscow, and the family of Michael Romanoff.

A New Conflict for an Old Goal.

We have followed the course of the expansion of the empire; of its advance into Asia toward the East and toward the South; its struggles with Poland and the Teutonic peoples on the West; the aspirations for the unlocking of the empire, and the efforts to reach an unfrozen sea; the battles with the Turk; the hostility of Western Europe, and the triumphs of arms and diplomacy which have resulted in almost reaching the shores of the Persian Gulf on the one hand, and the Mediterranean on the other, and now we come to the present Emperor, and we find him against his will, it must be said, in the midst of a new conflict for the same old goal—a harbor without ice.

When Nicholas Alexandrovitch came to the throne of the Romanoffs, November 1, 1895, he was in his twenty-sixth year and little was known of him, except that in personal appearance he was almost the

exact counterpart of his cousin, the present Prince of Wales. In fact, these two young men looked so much alike that the photograph of one could scarcely be told from the other, unless they wore their decorations. Presumably they are not unlike in character, as their mothers were sisters.

Family Life of a Czar.

The etiquette which prevails in Russia forbids the publication of much about the private life of the family of a czar. It is known, however, that Alexander brought up his children in the strictest manner. Their domestic life was quiet, and as unobtrusive as that of any well-to-do citizen. We have seen how strict a churchman was Alexander III, and his religion was not perfunctory. He was not only devout himself, but his habits coincided with his belief, and control the morals of his household. Then, too, the Danish princess who was his wife was a most exemplary woman. Her children were all in all to her, and her influence, coupled with the severe restrictions of the father, resulted in making the young grand dukes men of good habits and uncompromising moral convictions. Unfortunately, the Czarina was endowed with a delicate constitution, which her children inherited, rather than the strong physique of their father. Thus it happened that Nicholas was a rather puny boy, while his brother George was consumptive. Their delicate condition doubtless was aggravated by the ideas of their father, which led him to adopt for his children customs which he considered necessary to harden them. They were caused to expose themselves in inclement weather, and to engage in constant and laborious exercise, which overtaxed their strength.

The Youth of Nicholas.

Once a year the entire family was taken to visit their grandparents at Copenhagen, and these were holiday times for the boys, who, as they came to young manhood and were old enough to appear in society, made the most of the opportunity. One of the few stories published about the present Czar is to the effect that once at a ball at Copenhagen he invited a lady to waltz. The youth kept on and on, whirling

round the floor, until the lady was upon the point of fainting. The young man finally realized that he was overtaxing his partner, and led her to a seat, when he said in apology, "Excuse me, Countess, I wanted to show that the Crown Prince of Russia is not weak."

His inexperience in society naturally led the young man to a very early and awkward love affair. There is no question about it that he was desperately smitten. The object of his love was a ballet dancer, and, oh horrors, a Jewess! It seems the young lady was not only beautiful and charming in face and manner, but of an unquestioned character for virtue.

His First Love Affair.

The young man was in trouble. He could not marry outside of the royal blood, without the formal consent of his father, and he hastened to St. Petersburg to lay the matter before his royal parent. He proposed to follow the example of the Grand Duke Constantine, brother of Alexander I, who had renounced the throne for the Polish Countess, Janet Grudinsky. He preferred his Jewish ballet dancer to the crown. He desired to abdicate in favor of his brother George.

Naturally his father would not listen to the proposition. All his life he had regarded a Jew with horror. Furthermore, it was not possible to put George upon the throne on account of his declining health. Consumption had early marked him as its inevitable victim. The young man was commanded to give up his Jewess and prepare himself for the duties and troubles which are the lot of a Czar of Russia, and to contemplate only a marriage in due time which should accord with the demands of the state.

Travels in Foreign Lands.

In order to distract his mind and wean him from this ill-considered love affair, it was decided to send him abroad. This trip resulted in two very important things—one was that he almost lost his life in Japan; the second, that he had an opportunity to travel clear across his empire, a circumstance which makes him the first Tsar who has ever seen his far eastern possessions. He was accompanied on this

trip by Prince George of Greece, his cousin, and by Prince Ouchtomsky, who has written an account of the tour.

The party visited Kioto, the old capital of Japan, and spent the morning in an excursion to Otzu, taking luncheon with the prefect of the district in that little town, and, as ordinary carriages could not be used in that part of the country, they started to return to Kioto in jinrikshas.

This vehicle is a small cart, drawn by a man, and is a common means of conveyance in Japan. Up to this point the tour had been uneventful and much like that which is experienced by the ordinary traveler. What happened is best told in a letter of Prince George of Greece to his father, which tells the story of that eventful day, May 11, 1891. It was one of those days when the destinies of nations hang upon a very slender thread.

A Thrilling Incident.

Prince George writes: "We passed through a narrow street, decorated with flags and filled with crowds of people on both sides of the thoroughfare. I was looking toward the left when I suddenly heard something like a shriek in front of me and saw a policeman hitting Nicky a blow on the head with a sword, which he held in both hands. Nicky jumped out of the jinriksha and the man ran after him; Nicky with blood streaming down his face. When I saw this, I too jumped out with my stick in my hand and ran after the man, who was about fifteen yards in front of me. Nicky ran into a shop, but came out immediately, which enabled the man to overtake him; but I, thank God, I was there in the same moment, and while the policeman still had his sword high in the air, I gave him a blow straight on the head, a blow so hard that he has probably never experienced a similar one before. He now turned against me, but fainted and fell to the ground; then two of our jinriksha pullers appeared on the scene, one got hold of his legs while the other took up the sword which he had dropped in falling and gave him a wound in the back of his head. It is God who placed me there at that moment, and gave me strength to deal the blow; for had I been a little later the policeman had perhaps cut

off Nicky's head, and had my blow missed the assailant's head he would have cut off mine. The whole thing happened so quickly that the others who were behind had seen nothing of the whole affair. Nicky sat down; Doctor Plambach bandaged the wound as well as he could, and then escorted by soldiers who had in the meantime been called, we drove him back to the Governor's house. A firmer bandage was put on, and we remained in the house about an hour and a half. I must say I admire Nicky's pluck. He did not faint a single time, nor did he lose his good spirits for a moment, and yet he had two large wounds in the head above the ear. The one wound was five centimeters long, the other six, and both had penetrated to the skull, but luckily got no further." It is needless to say that this episode made a sensation.

The Festivities Abandoned.

It appears that the policeman who committed the outrage was an old sergeant-major who had been decorated for gallant service and was much trusted. He seems to have been very much prejudiced against foreigners generally, but above all he hated Russians.

When the party got back to the Governor's house at Kioto there was the wildest excitement. The Russian ambassador, who was with him, threw himself at the feet of the Crown Prince with a cry of horror, but the young man raised him quietly, saying, "Do not be anxious; it is only blood."

The grand festivities at the Russian embassy and the Japanese court, which had been planned, were, of course, abandoned. The sister of Marion Crawford, the author, Mrs. Hugh Frazer, wrote a letter at the time which has been published, which shows the condition of things at this juncture.

The Solicitude of the Empress.

Mrs. Frazer writes: "As yet no one knew whether a riot had taken place, whether the ambassador who was with the prince was hurt, but to tell the truth, I do not believe those two loyal women could have suffered more anguish of soul even had he been killed. I learned for the first time what loyalty meant; with what a passion of devotion the

blood of some races leaps to the call, mad to be spilt for the sovereign and his family. My poor friends were utterly prostrated by the blow, which had fallen some two hours before I reached them. They had wept till they could weep no more, and Vera S., a most charming and brilliant girl, was raging up and down the room, crying, 'O, our Prince, our Prince. God have mercy on our Prince!'

"Meanwhile there was one person who could do nothing to help the poor young prince or to punish his assailant. The valiant, gentle Empress forgot all the repressions of her upbringing, all the superb calm which, as due to her rank, she had shown in every circumstance of her life, and all that wretched night she walked up and down her room, weeping her heart out in a flood-tide of grief. 'The poor mother,' she wailed, 'she cannot see her boy! She will not believe he is safe! Poor mother! How can I comfort her?' And she sent telegram after telegram to the Czarina, assuring her of the profound, heartbroken sympathy with which she, the Empress of Japan, regarded her trouble, and promising that the Czarevitch should be nursed and tended as if his mother were with him.

A Prince and a Gentleman.

"The young man behaved all through like a prince and a gentleman, not the slightest sign of rancor ever appeared in his voice or manner, and when, at his parents' command (it is said, at his mother's entreaty), he gave up the rest of his Japanese tour, and was carried back on board of his own ship to be nursed, he softened the act by every kind word that could possibly be used. Thanking the Emperor of Japan warmly for all his kindness, he assured him how great a deprivation it was for him not to visit the imperial family at Tokio because, 'For reasons of health, he was still somewhat weak, and it was considered better that he should return to Russia at once.' The public grief was profound and universal, the theatres were closed, the shops and markets abandoned. The Emperor had pledged his honor for the safety of the Prince, every reasonable precaution had been taken, but the insult and outrage that had befallen the Emperor's guest was felt to be a national dishonor.

Spontaneously the people thought what could they do to testify to the wounded Czarevitch their sympathy and sorrow. From all parts of the country came presents, until every part of the Czarevitch's ship was encumbered with gifts. Poor men walked days to bring their little offering. Rich men sent precious heirlooms, with messages of love and respect."

This letter of Mrs. Frazer was written from Kioto immediately following the incident it described.

A Royal Invalid.

The Emperor of Japan sent word to the judges that the would-be murderer of the Crown Prince of Russia must be executed. But this they flatly refused to do, because the Japanese constitution and laws forbid any special punishment for assault upon one person more than upon another. Hence, ten years' imprisonment was the limit which could be inflicted.

The ship upon which the royal invalid was nursed landed him a month later at Vladivostok. There he laid the cornerstone of the eastern branch of the Trans-Siberian railroad, and journeyed home overland by train and boat and coach clear across Siberia. This is how it happens that he is the first czar who ever set foot upon the Pacific frontiers of his empire, or who has had by personal knowledge a comprehension of the extent of his dominions.

By this time it is said that he had been cured of his infatuation for the ballet dancer, and upon his return home his father became very anxious that he should find a suitable wife among the princesses of Europe.

Looking for a Wife.

The Princess Elena of Montenegro was discussed first as a suitable person, but the young people most interested did not seem to take to each other, and, as is well known, the Princess Elena became the bride of the then Crown Prince of Italy, and became the Queen of that country and the mother of a promising family.

In the meantime Nicholas began to take an active interest in the

affairs of the empire, being appointed at the head of a committee to provide relief during the great famine, and taking a prominent position in all that concerned the great railroads, both those being built and those projected, throughout the empire, but his father, fearing the early end of his career, would not allow the young man to forget the all-important matter of a wife. At first he seems to have been, to say the least, very indifferent, but when, not long after his return from the East, he went to attend the marriage of his cousin Marie, at Gotha, to the heir-presumptive of the King of Roumania, he met the Princess Alix, of Hesse-Darmstadt, his second cousin. She was the niece, by marriage, of his aunt, the Grand Duchess Marie, wife of the English Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. The Grand Duchess was a very skillful woman, who numbered among her amusements that of match-making. Observing that the young Czarevitch seemed to be impressed by the beauty, dignity and good sense of the Princess Alix, she did her best to throw them together, no doubt, with the ultimate view of their marriage.

Nicholas Goes "A-Courting."

Alexander III, being informed of the state of affairs, and well knowing that there was the making of a very desirable daughter-in-law in the person of this young Anglo-German girl, likewise contributed to the management of the courtship. He had favored the Princess Elena of Montenegro, because she was of Orthodox faith, but, content with the way things were working out, he urged his son to go to Darmstadt and visit the Princess Alix in her own home. Of course the young man readily found time for so pleasant a mission, with the result that he proposed to the young lady, but she refused at first to give a positive answer.

She was the daughter of the Princess Alice of England, who, although a member of one of the richest royal families in Europe, had passed her life as wife and mother at the home of a German duke, in poverty at times so extreme that she was unable even to hire a servant to help rear her children and tend to the ordinary duties of housekeeping.

Married and Crowned.

The Princess Alix, brought up amid these surroundings, had naturally never been given to fashionable frivolity, but had been educated by her mother with a full knowledge of domestic duties, and she was, withal, very devout, and a Protestant. She knew that to become Czarina she must embrace the Orthodox faith of the Greek Catholic Church, and she did not believe at first that she could conscientiously do this. The result was that she hesitated for months, and all the time the Czar was growing weaker and daily more anxious to see his son properly settled before his death. Finally the Princess was persuaded to visit the Czar and discuss the matter with him. The dying Emperor wished to know more about the young woman, and she, on her part, wished to know more fully what her duties would be, should she obey the impulses of her heart and consent to marry the Crown Prince. The result of the visit was that the Princess consented, to the great relief and satisfaction of Alexander. In due time she was admitted to membership of the Orthodox Church, was married, and crowned. Upon her admission to the church, it was necessary for the Princess to assume a new name, and she took that of Alexandra Feodorovna. This is the name by which she will be known in history, and was doubtless selected in honor of her aunt by marriage, the present Queen of England. Within a year after their marriage, which was celebrated without ostentation soon after Alexander's death, a child was born, but, unfortunately for the Russian throne, it was a girl. She was named Olga, and two other children have since followed, both girls.

Head of Church and State.

It will be remembered that the son of Catherine II caused the Russian throne to be barred in future to women, so long as there lived a male member of the family. To show how things are planned in royal circles, it may be mentioned that when Queen Victoria saw her little Russian great-granddaughter she at once announced that she

should marry, when grown up to the proper age, her great-grandson, the son of the present Prince of Wales, at that time, of course, Duke of York.

The coronation of the Czar of Russia is not only a stately ceremonial, but a religious institution. The Czar becomes not only the head of the state, but since Peter the Great he is also the Pope of the Orthodox Russian Greek Church. He is the Supreme High Priest, as well as absolute monarch.

The coronation ceremonies occurred, as they always must in Russia, at Moscow, May 26, 1896. This ceremony has been so often and so fully described that we will not give space to the subject here.

A Zealous Monarch.

The young Czar set to work at once to improve the internal affairs of his empire. Upon the birth of his first child he forbade religious persecutions, and he busied himself with pushing to completion the Trans-Siberian Railway, and in extending the canal system of Russia in Europe. He cultivated intimate relations with Persia, and with the Ameer of Afghanistan, with a view to extending Russian influence in the territory crossed by the road to the Indian Ocean. He finally became practically master of Persia, through diplomacy and financial operations, and this influence seems to be unimpaired up to the present time.

There is no doubt but that Nicholas desired peace from the start. All who came in contact with him testified to their conviction that he was earnest and honest in his abhorrence of war. One of the first and most important acts of his reign was to enter upon an agitation looking to disarmament and the cutting down of the vast standing armies at present maintained by the continental powers of Europe. This led to his call for the Peace Congress held at The Hague in the summer of 1899, at which both England and the United States were represented, although at that moment we had a war on hand in the Philippines, and Cecil Rhodes and Joseph Chamberlain were getting ready to pounce upon the Dutch of South Africa.

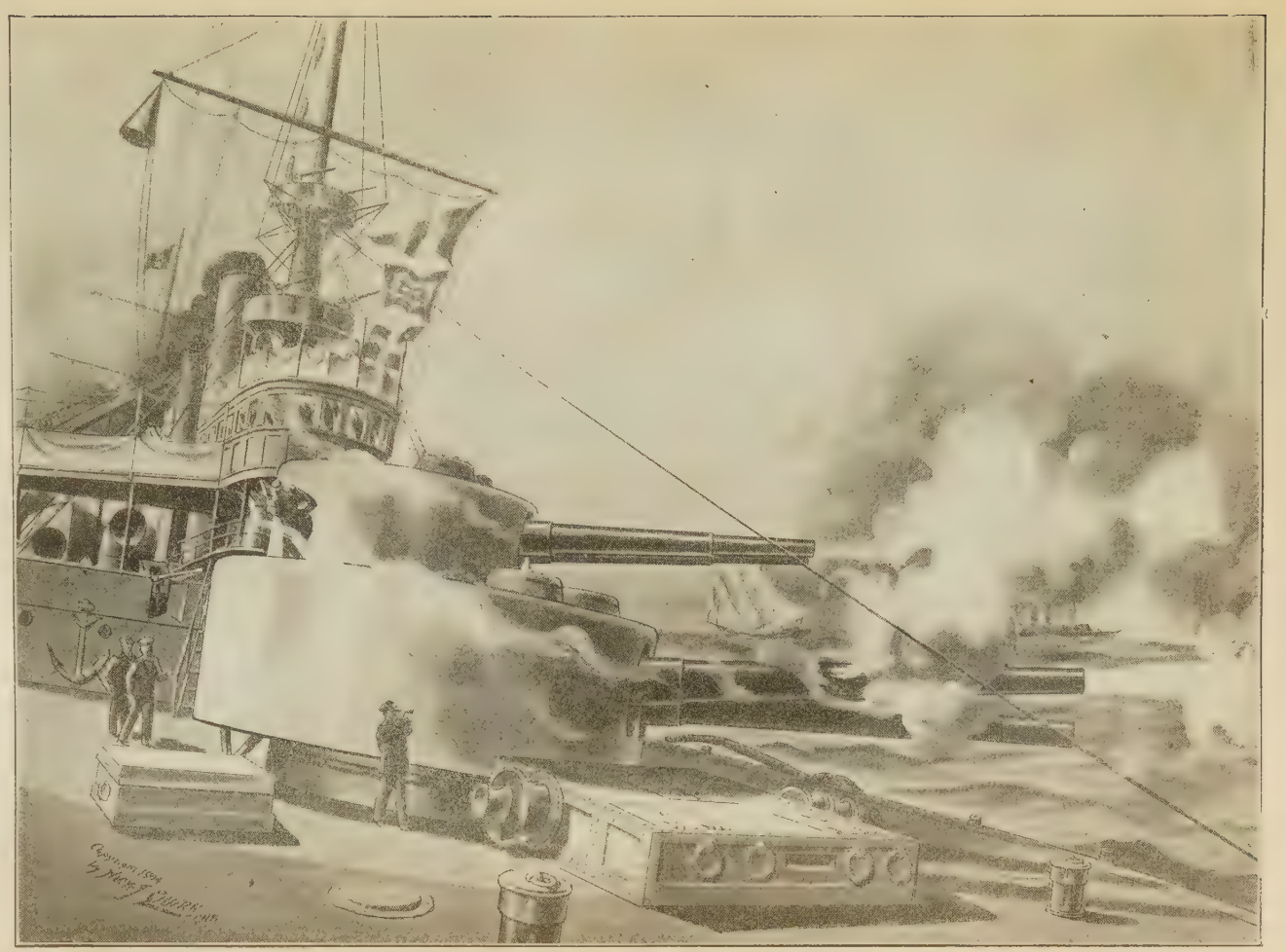
The Czar's Peace Congress.

Whether the world does not really desire to settle international disputes by a lawsuit, and really prefers to fight occasionally, at any rate the Czar's Peace Congress did not come to much. The nations would not agree to disarm. Some resolutions were passed, but that is about all. It is true, however, that the possibility of international arbitration in a certain class of cases has been realized, and it is to the credit of the Czar that he gave the movement first impetus which, while at this date, not promising a secure guarantee of peace, has opened the way and led to some advance toward such an end. The Czar was greatly disappointed when the world in general did not accept his proposition seriously. Still, this court promises to be of great use in secondary matters, and, indeed, England and France have gone so far as to make a treaty providing that a certain class of international questions affecting these two countries at least shall be referred to this tribunal. We have seen how President Roosevelt compelled England, France and Italy to carry one question regarding the claims against Venezuela to this court. We have also found Mexico paying a judgment for a very large sum of money in the case of a claim which had been pending for many years.

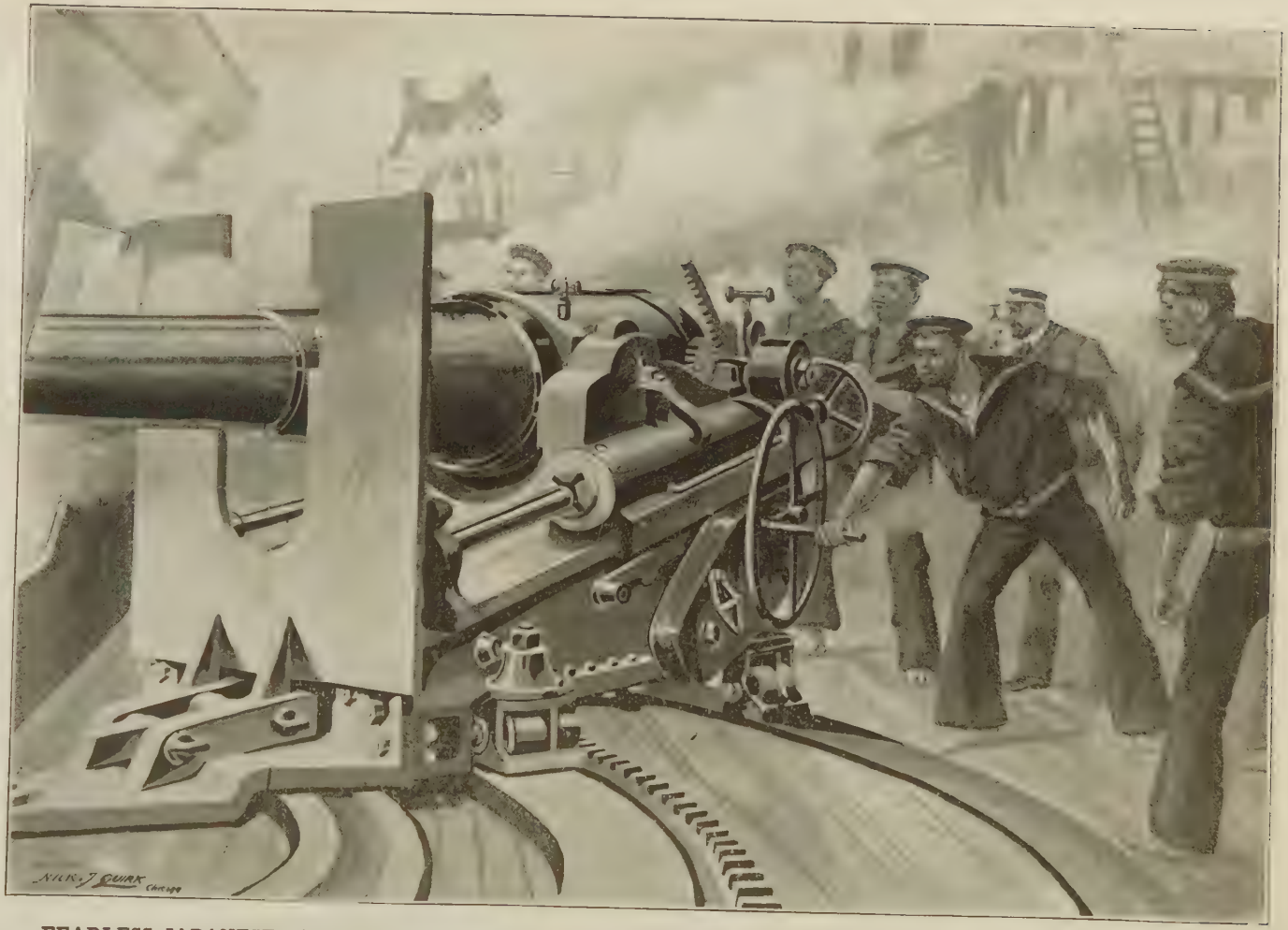
About this time the Czar's brother George, who, as the next male, was heir-presumptive to the throne, died, and upon the birth of a third daughter, to the great disappointment of the family, the title of Czarevitch fell provisionally to the Grand Duke Michael, third son, and youngest child of Alexander III. The Czar was so depressed by these family misfortunes that it is said he actually contemplated abdication.

The Absorption of Finland.

In 1898 an important step was taken with relation to Finland. This country which, by racial affinity, belongs to Sweden rather than Russia, had for a long time been governed by its own constitution and legislative assembly, the Czar of Russia being its Grand Duke. It is said that the Czar's prime minister and some other members of the imperial



EXCITING SCENE ON DECK OF BATTLESHIP WITH FORWARD TURRET GUNS IN ACTION DURING NAVAL BATTLE BETWEEN THE RUSSIAN AND JAPANESE FLEETS



FEARLESS JAPANESE SAILORS FIRING A RIFLE CANON DURING ATTACK ON RUSSIAN FLEET, FEB. 8, 1904

(Drawn from telegraphic description.)

THE SUBMARINE TORPEDO BOAT

The lower photograph shows a battleship launching a submarine boat from deck preparatory to starting it on its errand of death. This boat can be propelled at great speed while entirely submerged, and in this manner can approach as near to the ships of the enemy as desired in order to accurately discharge the deadly torpedo.

The upper picture shows this boat emerging from the depths of the sea after having attacked the enemy. The terrible destruction worked by one of these boats is graphically pictured on another page of this book.

A SUCCESSFUL TORPEDO ATTACK BY SUBMARINE BOAT

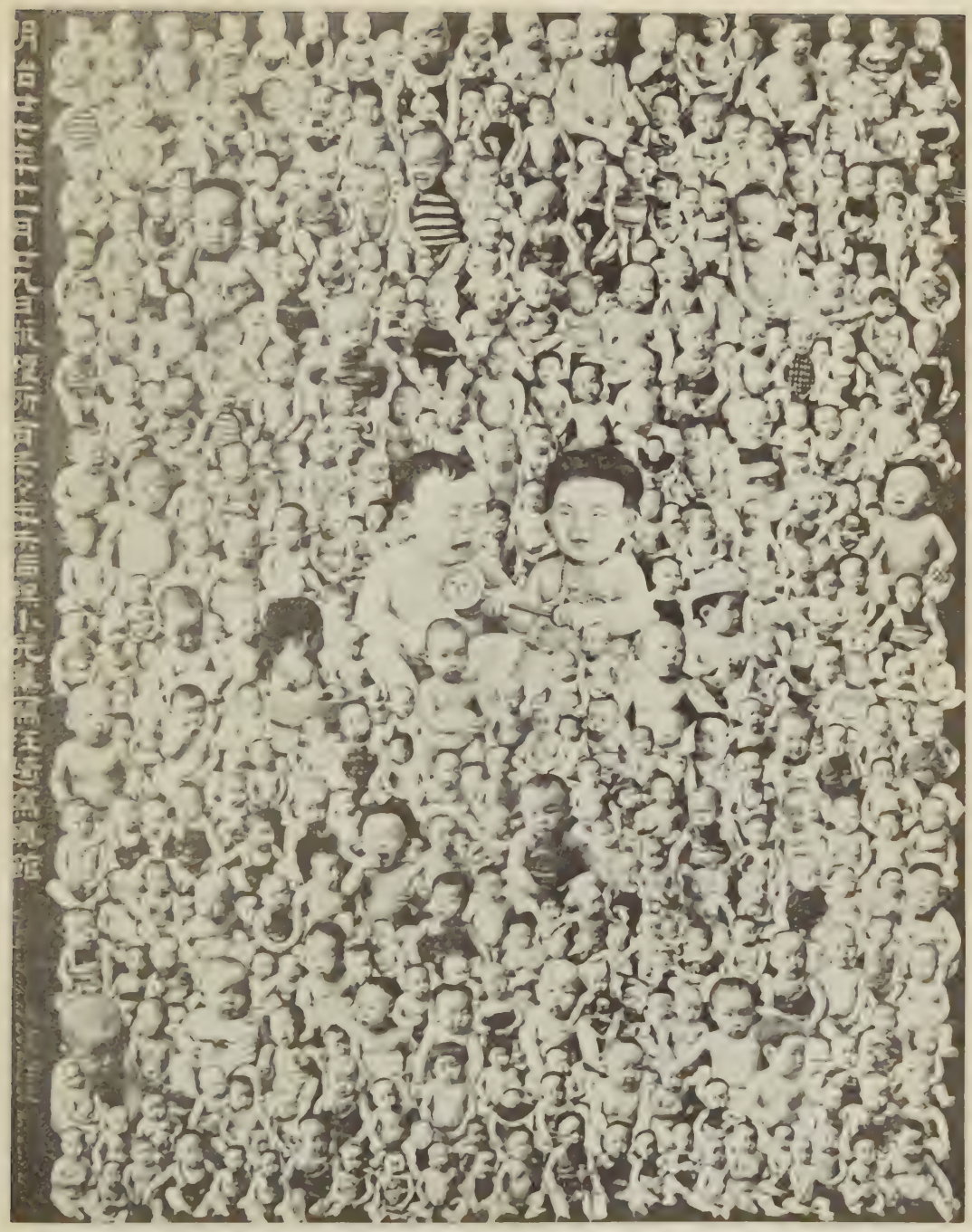
Both the Russian and Japanese navies are well supplied with these death-dealing boats. Owing to the fact that they can be successfully propelled under water they can approach a battleship unobserved—the first evidence of their presence being the explosion of the torpedo.

THE JAPANESE ARMY ON THE MARCH

This picture shows Japanese artillery making a dash for a strategic position in Central Korea. Every movement of the troops was accomplished with great dexterity and quickness, indicating that the little Island Empire was, at least, thoroughly equipped and prepared for war.

DESTRUCTION OF A RAILROAD BRIDGE

For months before hostilities began, Japanese engineers, disguised as coolies, were working as common laborers along the line of the Manchurian railway. Their object was to destroy the railroad, by means of explosives, whenever the opportunity occurred The above illustration shows the blowing-up of a bridge guarded by Russian patrols



A GROUP OF JAPANESE BABIES

The love for children is universal, not sectional. That was what Shakespeare meant when he said that: "One touch of nature makes the whole world kin." What a fund of humorous interest there is in the above portrayal of infant innocence. And yet there is a background of pathos to the picture, for over it lingers the pall of death—perhaps the fathers of many of these little ones laid their lives on the altar of their country.

ARRIVAL OF OUR WAR CORRESPONDENT AT SEOUL

The above picture, made by our own artist, accurately represents the every-day life in the streets of Seoul, the capital of Korea. The man at the right wears the Korean guard uniform. The strange looking receptacles carried by the native on his back are water casks. As will be noted, the inhabitants are greatly interested in the new arrival.

council had long been of the opinion that the good of the empire demanded that Finland should be governed like any other part of the country, and should be received and amalgamated thoroughly into the empire by the abolition of this constitution, and the placing of this grand duchy under the power of the autocracy, like any other province. It is reported, too, that one of the Czar's schemes for internal improvement was hampered by the semi-independence of the Finns. He had planned the building of a railroad from St. Petersburg to the Arctic Ocean, and the port desired for it is on the Beranger Fiord, one side of which is in Norway and the other in Finland. Although this Fiord is on the Arctic Ocean, still, by a sweep of the Gulf Stream around the coast where Norway cuts off Sweden from the Arctic Ocean, it is almost always open.

Various Enterprises and Projects.

Among other favorite measures of the Czar was the improvement of the condition of the agricultural peasants. The sudden change caused by the abolition of serfdom from the farming of large estates to the working of small farms led to great difficulties and hardships among the people who were without any means to carry on enterprises for themselves, and, in fact, were not educated to the responsibility. The amelioration of these conditions was very close to the heart of the Czar, and the empire was led into vast expenditures in aid of this object.

Another enterprise of the Czar was the construction of a waterway clear across the country, connecting the Baltic with the Black Sea. The whole course of this projected canal would run through rich and populous provinces. There was already a canal which facilitated transportation between the Baltic and the Caspian, but it was inadequate to the immense demand made upon it for the constantly increasing output of petroleum, salt, grain, hay, wood, and other products, which depend upon it for distribution. It was proposed to make a ship canal by means of which ocean-going steamers and warships might pass to and fro, in and out of the Black Sea, without reference to the Dardanelles.

A Policy of Peace.

With all these great projects in hand, with peace, the greatest need of the empire, it can scarcely be believed that the war in which Russia found herself engaged with Japan was sought or desired by Nicholas. On the other hand, every indication pointed to his sincerity in wishing for a policy of continuous peace, and it seemed to be unquestionable that he was led step by step into a position which provoked, if it did not make imperative, the attack of Japan. The fact that the Czar banished from Russia the Governor of Eastern Siberia, who retired in disgrace to the south of France, would indicate that he himself realized at last that he and the country were led into a false position by the so-called "war party" in St. Petersburg, and in the Far East.

Nicholas is a man of broad education, and well-read in the literature of other nations and languages beside his own. He speaks English fluently, and in boyhood delighted to read the novels of Walter Scott and Charles Dickens. He speaks most of the important languages of Europe. He is upon intimate and friendly relations with the young King of Italy, the Prince of Wales, and the Emperor of Germany, men near his own age. He is thoroughly conversant with the political ambitions and aspirations of the rulers of the civilized world. He has had frequent interviews with the monarchs of Europe and with French statesmen by visits he has made, not infrequently, both before and since he became Czar, at the principal courts of Europe. He has seen and conversed with leading men of all the fourteen nations of which he is emperor. It may appear, therefore, surprising that he should find himself face to face with an unwished for and detested war.

CHAPTER XIX.

KOREA, THE HERMIT NATION

The Bone of Contention—History of the Country—Seoul, the Capital—Chemulpo—Fusan, the Gateway to Korea—Classes of People—Slavery—Korean Literature—Industries—Commercial Importance.

KOREA might have been called the real bone of contention between Russia and Japan. Of course Manchuria figured considerably in the disagreement and war. Russia made an application to the Korean government in January, 1903, for a railroad concession from Seoul to Wiju, which was refused by Korea; she also attempted to establish a settlement near Wiju, in order to hold a timber concession granted in 1896. It was reported that many Russian soldiers were entering the territory, disguised as surveyors, and a protest was made by Korea, who insisted that the Russians retire. It was generally thought that the aggression on the part of the latter country was evidence of a design against Korea similar to that against Manchuria. Japan joined Korea in the protest, and for a time war seemed verging between Japan and Russia, at that time. Japan also showed a tendency to find a foothold in Korea, demanding the same rights there that Russia enjoyed in Manchuria.

Population and Area.

Korea has an area equal to that of the State of Kansas, or 82,000 square miles. Its population is one-fourth that of Japan or 10,528,937. The Korean peninsula hangs like a bridge down from Manchuria almost to Japan. It has a coast line measuring 1,740 miles, and with its outlying islands has a coast line nearly as great as that of Great Britain. The name of Korea is derived from the Japanese "Korai" (chosen), and is translated into "Morning Calm." The eastern half of the peninsula is a sinuous range of mountains of which western Korea is the slope.

When the steam and electric railways were built in Korea a few years ago the natives looked upon them as the works of the devil or the evil spirit. It was with the greatest difficulty that the officials prevented the mob from destroying the property of the electric railway, which had begun operations in Seoul.

The City of Seoul.

Seoul, the capital of the kingdom, is enclosed by crenellated walls of varying height, which average about 20 feet, with arch stone bridges spanning the water courses. The city is laid off in the form of an irregular oblong, and stretches lengthwise in a valley that runs from northeast to southwest. The houses are about eight or nine feet high, built of stone or mud and mostly roofed with tiles, after the Chinese fashion. Internally the abodes of the Koreans are clean, for like the Japanese, they take off their shoes before entering the houses.

A long main street, about 100 feet wide, running from east to west, divides the city into two nearly equal portions. In the northern half are the walled and inclosures containing the King's palace and the more important public buildings. A street about 50 feet wide intersects the main thoroughfare at right angles, dividing the northern half of the city into eastern and western quarters. At the point of intersection stands a pavilion called Chong-Kak (the "Bell Kiosk"), from a large bell about 7 feet high which is placed there. This spot is regarded as the center of the city, and from it another street as wide as the main street branches off to the southwest. The four wide streets which thus radiate from the "Bell Kiosk" are known as the four Chong-Ro or "Bell roads."

Appearance of the Streets.

Another conspicuous feature of this central part of the city is the row of large warehouses—two stories high, the lower portion of which are divided into little shops, opening into a small court-yard instead of facing the street. The width of the main streets was formerly much reduced by the construction in front of nearly every house of a rude wooden shanty used for a work shop or business purposes, which gave

the streets a poor and squalid appearance. A spacious market place is located in one of the busiest parts of the city. An annual appropriation of $50,000 was made by the Finance Department for the maintenance and improvements of the roads, and a similar sum was recently appropriated for drainage. Official returns give the number of houses in Seoul as 30,000.

The Principal Seaport Town.

Chemulpo is the principal seaport city of Korea. It faces toward the Russian cities of Port Arthur and Dalny at the end of the Manchurian peninsular. It is about one day by steamship across the Gulf of Pechili from Chemulpo to Port Arthur. According to the Japanese their war with Russia began at Chemulpo on February 8 by the Russian warships in that harbor firing upon the Japanese fleet and transports which were endeavoring to disembark troops on Korean soil at Chemulpo.

Rapid Rise of Chemulpo.

The city is located at the entrance to the Salle River, on the west coast of Korea. In 1880 Chemulpo was a collection of about a dozen miserable mud huts; in 1904, it was a large and flourishing center of trade, with broad roads of metal, good substantial buildings and a foreign population of about 8,000, principally Japanese and Chinese. These settlements are fully occupied, and the price of land in the general foreign settlement has risen almost unto fabulous rates. The outer anchorage is accessible to ships of all sizes, and the inner one to coasting vessels and steamers ordinarily employed in the local trade. The port was opened to Japanese trade on the first of January, 1883, and to foreign trade on June of the same year. The total value of the trade at Chemulpo amounts to more than $10,000,000 per annum. Korea purchases more goods from other countries than she sells to them.

A Country of Ancient Traditions.

That part of Korea comprised in the peninsular has been inhabited by a people whose traditions extend over a period of five thousand

years. They have been subjected to kaleidoscopic changes whereby smaller tribes were absorbed by larger, and weaker governments were overthrown by stronger—there was gradually evolved one kingdom which, eventually embracing all preceding territorial units under her own protection, has presented to the world through centuries a more or less composite and stable authority. From very early times until 1895, the King of Korea was a vassal of China. In early times there was no such thing as a King of the whole peninsular, and the suzerainty of China, irregularly maintained at best, was long confined to the small kingdom or kingdoms which occupied the northern part of the country. At an early date a large faction, if not the whole of the peninsular, was conquered by the Japanese under Empress Jingu and maintained for a considerable time. Again, in the closing years of the 16th century, the peninsula was invaded and a large part of it temporarily conquered by the Japanese. Under the regent Hideyoshi and evèn after most of the peninsula was evacuated but the Japanese retained a foothold at Fusan, together with certain rights which formed the basis of which China's claim to suzerainty was disputed in the war of 1895.

The Part Played by Fusan.

Fusan not only played an important role in that war, but had been for centuries the flood gate through which had poured the inhabitants of Japan. Sometimes they had invaded Korea as enemies, levying tribute; sometimes they had come as allies against China; sometimes they had appeared as envoys of a friendly state and had returned enriched to the court of their sovereign.

At times, actuated by compassion, they had sent grain ships to Fusan when famine overtook their neighbor. In a word, between Japan and Fusan there was a continuous passing of ships. Around this outlet, the one gate to the southern half of the peninsular, the spasmodic beginnings of the present important commerce between the two countries grew out of a fitful exchange of commodities.

In the sixteenth century Korea, taking advantage of the internal convulsions of which the Island Empire was a victim, had practically

renounced her old relation of vassalage to Japan and had ceased to send an annual embassy thither. When order was at length restored in the Island Empire, the King of Korea was summoned to renew his allegiance.

Invasion of Korea.

The answer proving unsatisfactory, an invasion of the peninsula was undertaken by the Japanese. A settlement at Fusan, which had been founded long before by the retainers of the daimio of the Island of Tsu-shima, assisted by itinerant traders and deserters from the numerous expeditions which had visited its shores, had grown to such dimensions that when a Japanese force was descried off the harbor on the morning of May 25th, 1592, Fusan was already in their possession.

Not only did this circumstance give the Japanese troops facilities for disembarkation, but, throughout the vicissitudes of the next six years' campaign, it furthered their operations.

The position of Fusan made the place not only a base of supplies for the invading armies, but also a repairing yard, much needed by the Japanese fleet when it had been defeated by the Korean ships in an attempt to co-operate with the victorious soldiers which the Japanese generals, Konishi and Kuroda, had massed before the city of Ping-yang, in the northwest of the peninsula.

After the failure of this first invasion and the retreat in May, 1593, of the Japanese from the north before the combined strength of the Chinese and Koreans, Fusan became one of the fortified camps where the Japanese passed the winter within sight of their native shores.

The negotiations which were prosecuted during the four following years having proved fruitless, Japan decided to renew her attack, and Fusan became the base of the second invasion. A tremendous force was now launched against the peninsula by Hideyoshi, and although it had ultimately to be withdrawn, it is said to have cost Korea the loss of 300,000 men and to have subjected it to devastation from which the country needed two centuries to recover, if indeed, it has ever regained its former prosperity.

Moreover, as we have mentioned, the Japanese continued to retain Fusan, as a voucher of their claim to ascendency. When the treaty of 1876 removed the nominal obstacles to the over-sea immigration, which had gone on for several hundred years, a wave of Japanese colonization at once broke upon the eastern, western and southern shores of the Hermit Kingdom.

A Mixture of Elements.

Most ethonologists regard the Korean as the product of a mixture of Mongolian and Caucasian elements. His personal observation has led him to concur in the belief that the Koreans are descendant from part of the half savage and nomadic tribes of Mongolia and Northern Asia and partly from the Caucasian peoples of Western Asia.

These two races, coming in the one case from the North, and drifting up in the other from the South, at the time of the Aryan invasion of India, peopled respectively the North and the South of the peninsula.

Speech Akin to Chinese.

Finally, fusing, they gave to the world a composite nation, distinct in type and speech and habits, and amalgamated only by a train of circumstances over which they could have no control. It is by the facial resemblances that the origin of the Koreans may be traced in part to a Caucasian source.

The speech of the country, while closely akin to Chinese, reproduces sounds and many verbal denominations which are found in the language of India. Korea has submitted to the influence of Chinese arts and literature for centuries, yet there is but little agreement between the legends of the two countries. The folklore of China is in radical disagreement with the vague and shadowy traditions of the people of Korea. There is, in truth, a vast blank in the early history of the peninsula at a period when the Middle Kingdom is represented by consecutive records still unimpaired

Three Classes of People.

The Koreans are, it seems, divided into three classes. The "yangban," or noble, is, of course, the ruling class; then come a middle and a lower class. The social barriers are well defined.

The upper class woman lives like the inmate of a zenana; from the age of 12 she is visible only to the people of her household, and to her immediate relatives. She is married young, and thenceforth her acquaintances among men are restricted to those within the fifth degree of cousinship. She may, indeed, visit her friends, being usually carried by four bearers in a screened chair. She seldom walks, but should she do so her face is invariably veiled in the folds of a chang-ot. The chang-ot is by no means so complete a concealment as is the Turkish veil. Moreover it is often cast aside in old age.

Upon the women of the middle class few restrictions are imposed as to their appearance in the streets, nor are they so closely secluded in their houses as are their aristocratic sisters. Their faces, however, are veiled. Nuns, dancing girls, slaves and prostitutes, all of whom are included in the lowest class, are forbidden to wear the chang-ot.

Women doctors, too, dispense with it, although only women of the highest birth are allowed to practice medicine. There are some other careers besides that of medicine which are open to women of the upper class, who wish to embark in business in order to contribute to the support of the household. They may cultivate silkworms, start an apiary, weave straw shoes, conduct a wine shop, or teach.

Vocations of Women.

On the other hand, they may not undertake either the manufacture of lace and cloth, or the sale of fruit and vegetables. A descent in the social scale increases the number of callings which are open to women. Those of the middle class may engage in all the occupations permitted to upper class women except medicine and teaching. They may so become concubines, act as cooks, go out as wet nurses, or fill posts in the palace. They may keep any kind of shop, tavern or hotel; they possess certain fishing privileges which allow them to dig clams and collect cuttle fish or beches de mer. They may make every sort of boot and shoe. They may make fishing nets and fashion tobacco pouches.

If, on the other hand, some little respect is paid to women of the middle class, those of the third, or lowest stratum, are held in contempt.

Of the occupations open to middle class women, there are two in which women of humble origin cannot engage. The latter are ineligible for any palace position, and they are forbidden to manufacture tobacco pouches.

They may become sorceresses, jugglers, tumblers, contortionists, dancing girls and courtesans. The dancing girl usually closes her career by becoming the concubine of some rich noble. Concubinage, by the way, is a recognized institution, and one in which the middle and lower classes as well as the highest class indulge.

The rights of the children of concubines vary according to the moral laxity of the class in which they are born. In the upper class they possess no claim against the estates of their progenitors; the law of entail ignores them, and they may not perform the family sacrifices. In the absence of legitimate issue to a member of the highest class, a son must be adopted for the purpose of inheriting the family property and of attending to funeral and ancestral rites. Great stress is laid in the highest class upon purity of descent.

In the middle and lowest classes less attention is paid to it. Save in the lowest class, it is usual to maintain a separate establishment for each concubine. The fact that in the lowest class, the concubine and the wife share the same house is chargeable with much of the unhappiness of Korean family life.

No Law of Seclusion.

It appears that under the previous dynasty—the present dynasty has occupied the throne continuously since 1392—the sphere of Korean women was less restricted. There was no law of seclusion; the female sex enjoyed greater public freedom. In the closing decades of the preceding dynasty, however, the tone of society was lowered, and women became victims of violence. Buddhist priests were guilty of widespread debauchery; conjugal infidelity was common.

The present dynasty which, as we have said, has been on the throne more than 500 years, endeavored to check these evils by ordaining the isolation and promoting the greater subjection of the female sex. Vice

and immorality had been so long and so promiscuously practiced, however, that already men had begun to keep their women in seclusion of their own accord.

If they respected them to some extent, they were wholly distrustful to one another. Distrust and suspicion were thus the principal causes of the immuring of women, the system being spontaneously evolved as the male Koreans learned to dread the evil propensities of their own sex.

Only Female Slaves Allowed.

At present the institution of slavery in Korea is confined to the possession of female slaves. Up to the time of the great invasion of Korea by Japanese armies in 1592, both men and women could be held in bondage. The loss of men, however, in that war was so great that upon its conclusion a law was promulgated which forbade the holding of males in servitude.

There still exists, however, in Korea, the "sang-no" (incorrectly translated slave boy), who renders certain services only, and receives his food and clothes in compensation. The position of the sang-no is more humble than that filled by the paid servants, but it is superior to that of the slave proper. It is even superior to that of the serf in mediaeval England, because the sang-no is bound by no agreement, written or customary, and is free to leave his employer.

Duties of the Slave.

The duties of the female slave comprise the rough work of the house. She does the washing—a function which in a Korean household imposes exacting and continuous labor; she fetches water from the well, assists in the cooking, undertakes the marketing and runs errands. She is not allowed to assume any duties of a superior character; her place is in the kitchen or the yard; she cannot become either a lady's maid or a favored servant of any superior grade.

How a Woman Becomes a Slave.

There are, we are told, four ways by which a Korean woman may become a slave. If in abject poverty she may give herself to slavery

voluntarily, in exchange merely for food, clothes and shelter. The woman who becomes a slave in this way cannot buy back her freedom. She has fewer rights than the slave who is bought from an owner, or who sells herself for money. The daughter of a slave who dies in servitude continues in slavery.

In the event of the marriage of her mistress, such a slave ranks as a part of the dowry. A woman may also be reduced to slavery by the treasonable misconduct of a relative. The family of a man convicted of treason becomes the property of the Government and the women are alloted to high officials. Legally, they then become slaves, but usually they are manumitted.

Again, a woman may submit herself to the approval of a prospective employer. If she is found satisfactory, and is well recommended, her services may be appraised. When payment has been made, she gives a deed of her own person to her purchaser, imprinting the outline of her hand upon the document in place of a seal, and for the purpose of supplying easy means of identification. Although this transaction does not receive the recognizance of the Government, the contract is binding.

Marriage of Slaves Promoted.

We observe, lastly, that as the law provides that the daughter of a slave must take the place of her parent should the latter die, it is plainly for the owner's interest to promote the marriage of his slaves. Slaves who receive compensation for their services are entitled to marry whom they please, and quarters are provided for the couple.

The master of the house, however, has no claim upon the services of the husband. The slave who voluntarily assigns herself to servitude, but receives no pay for her services, may not marry without her owner's consent. In such cases, however, it is not unusual for the master in the course of a few years to restore to the slave her liberty.

Hitherto—that is to say, before Western ideas began to penetrate the peninsula—the position of the Korean woman has been so humble that education has been deemed superfluous. In Korea, as in ancient Athens, the artistic and literary faculties of respectable women were left uncultivated.

Among the dancing girls and courtesans, on the other hand, as among the Greek hetaira, the mental abilities are trained and developed, with a view to making them brilliant and entertaining companions.

Leaves of Sunlight.

The one sign, indeed of their profession is their culture, the scope and the charm of their attainments.

These "leaves of sunlight," as they are called, stand apart in a class of their own. They are named "gisaing," and correspond to the geisha of Japan; the duties, environment and mode of existence of the two are almost identical. Officially the gisaing are attached to a department of the Government, and, in common with the court musicians, are controlled by a particular bureau.

They are supported from the national treasury, and they play a conspicuous part at official dinners and palace entertainments. They read and recite, they dance and sing; they are accomplished artists and musicians. They dress with exceptional taste; they move with exceeding grace; they are delicate in appearance, very frail and very human, very tender, sympathetic and imaginative.

By their artistic and intellectual endowments, the dancing girls ironically enough, are debarred from the positions for which their talents peculiarly fit them. They may move in the highest society, and, in fact, do live in it, but they are not of it.

They are met at the house of the most distinguished men; they may become the mistresses of nobles or of princes, or even concubines of the Emperor. In Korea, however, as in ancient Athens, a man of good birth may not marry them, although they typify everything that is bright, lively and beautiful.

Methods of Instruction.

We pass to the education provided for men, and to some extent for respectable women. Up to the relatively recent introduction of foreign curricula and method of instruction, and, for that matter, even now, as regards the majority, the acquirements of the cultured classes have been

and are summed up in a vague and imperfect knowledge of the Chinese classics.

The members of the highest class profess to understand the language, and to know the literature of China, but very seldom are men of the middle class able to do more than read the mixed Chinese-Korean script in which the native newspapers are printed. In this script the grammatical construction is purely Korean.

As regards the oral language, the mandarin dialect of China is supposed to be the speech of polite society in Korea. It is the medium of official communication at the Court, and most of the foreigners in the service of the Government have mastered it.

According to Prof. Homer D. Hulbert, whose researches in Korean and Chinese philology may make an authority, only 1 per cent of the women of the upper class, though they may study Chinese, have any practical knowledge of it.

Women of the middle and lower classes are ignorant of the language and literature of the middle Kingdom.

Not more than 5 per cent would be found who could take up a Chinese work and read it as glibly as an average assembly of English people might be expected to read ordinary Latin prose.

The Literature of Korea.

As regards the On-mun, or common script of the country, there is no such ignorance; Koreans of the middle, as well as of the upper class, study their native writings with assiduity and intelligence. We are reminded that the language of Korea is altogether different from that of China and Japan.

The Hermit Kingdom possesses what both of those countries lack, to wit, an alphabet, which at present consists of twenty-five letters. The introduction of this alphabet is ascribed by the native annals to the year 1447, when the King of Korea, resolving to assert his independence by abandoning the Chinese mode of writing as the official medium of correspondence, invented an alphabet to suit the requirements of the vernacular. The vernacular literature includes translations from the Chinese

and Japanese classics, works on modern and mediaeval history, Korean books of travel and hunting, poetry, correspondence and works of fiction. Many of these books are studiously perused by Korean women, ignorance of their contents being regarded with disdain by members of the upper class, and even, though in a less pronounced degree, by representatives of the middle class. The female attendants in the palace are especially conversant with the vernacular, one of their duties being to prepare On-mun copies of Government orders, current news and general gossip for imperial use. Books in native script may easily be purchased in Korean cities, or they may be taken from circulating libraries. Many works are written in Chinese and in Korean upon alternate pages.

Korean Industries.

The majority of the Korean industries are connected with agriculture. It seems that more than 70 per cent of the population are farmers, while the carpenters, blacksmiths and stone masons combine a lifelong experience of husbandry with proficiency at the forge or in the work shop. Even the schoolmaster is usually the son of a yeoman-farmer; the fisherman has a small holding which his wife tills while he follows his calling. The rural population take an active part in certain native industries—thus the wives of farmers not only raise cotton, silk, linen and grass cloth, but convert the raw material into finished fabrics.

The sandals, mats, osier and wooden wares which figure conspicuously in Korean households, are produced by the farmers and their families in their leisure hours. The officials, too, the yamen-runners, the merchants, innkeepers, miners and junk men, though they do not belong to the agricultural population, are closely connected with it.

The Government exists on the revenue raised from agriculture. The internal economy of the country has been for centuries associated with the pursuits and problems of the agriculturist.

Agricultural Implements.

The implements of the Korean tiller of the soil are rude and few. They consist of a plow with a removable iron shoe, which turns the sod in a direction the reverse of our own; a spade equipped with ropes

and dragged by several men; bamboo flails and rakes, and a small hoe —sharp and heavy—used as occasion may require for reaping or chopping, as well as hoeing.

During the harvest season all available hands are mustered into the fields. The women cut the crop, the men fasten the sheaves, the children load them into rope panniers suspended upon wooden frames from the backs of bulls. The cut grain is threshed without delay, the men emptying the laden baskets upon the roadway and setting to with unwearied vigor. While the men thresh with their flails and the wind winnows the grain, a number of women work with their feet a massive beam, from which an iron or granite pestal is hung over a deep granite mortar. This rude contrivance pulverizes the grain sufficiently for the coarse cakes which serve in lieu of bread.

Beyond the bull and the pig, there are few animals in the inland districts. The pony and the donkey are not employed in agricultural work to the same extent as the bull. The latter animal, moreover, is better cared for than is the pony, whose temper is ruined by the harshness with which he is treated. The cruelty shown by the Korean to his pony is the most loathsome feature of the national life.

Cultivation of Rice.

Irrigation is needed only for rice, the chief cereal of the country, which, throughout central and southern Korea, yields fairly abundant crops. To the north rice makes way for millet, the chief supplementary food of the Korean. In times of drought the rice fields are used for barley, oats and rye.

Beans, peas and potatoes are planted between the furrows. According to Korean tradition, rice originated in Naram, in China, at a date variously given as 2838, B. C., and 2698, B. C. The first rice was brought to Korea in 2122, B. C., the only grain raised in the country before that time having been millet. There are in the Korean peninsula three kinds of rice, together with a number of sub-species. First is that called specifically kap-kok, which is grown in the paddy fields. It is used almost exclusively to make pap, the ordinary boiled rice.

TABLE OF DISTANCES

	English Miles
Straits of Korea (Tsushima Island) to Vladivostok	650
Straits of Korea (Tsushima Island) to Port Arthur	625
Fusan in South Korea to Shimonoseki, Japan	156
Yalu River to Chemulpo by sea, about	350
Chemulpo to Saseho (Japan imperial dockyard) by sea, about	660
Port Arthur to Chemulpo	294
Port Arthur to Taku forts	163
Port Arthur to Chifu	77
Chifu to Shanghai	510
Wei-hai-Wei to Hong Kong	1,186
Shanghai to Nagasaki	467
Port Arthur to Vladivostok, about	1,270
Fusan to Gensan by sea	350
Vladivostok to Russian frontier at Ekaterineberg	4,000

4 MAIN ISLANDS OF JAPAN—Hondo, Kiushiu, Shikoku, Yezo
OTHER ISLANDS TO THE SOUTH—Liukiu, Formosa.

NOTES

The railway which Japan is constructing in Korea is shown by a black line. In the south it is constructed as far as TAKU, some sixty miles from Fusan. In the north it also drops southwards for a similar distance Eighteen miles of rail connect Chemulpo with Seoul. Another branch is to connect Seoul with GENSAN (or Wonsan as it is given on many maps) in BROUGHTON BAY, which was named after Captain W. R. Broughton, the English navigator who first entered these waters on October 4, 1797, in his sloop-of-war, "Providence" (sixteen guns).

THE CRITICAL AREA CONCERNED IN THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR

Is here shown in bird's-eye form. In the foreground is the Empire of Japan, in the center is Korea, and in the distance can be seen the Trans-Siberian Railway, running across 5,000 miles of Siberian (and Manchurian) territory to St. Petersburg. Actual distances between important positions are shown in the annexed table.

GENSAN

Is situated in the south-west corner of the harbor, the bay is protected by chains of mountains. As a naval base it could easily be made very secure by fortification.

COAST OF KOREA

Most of the towns and villages round Korea are some eight miles inland owing to the now historic incursions of Japanese pirates.

THE YALU DISTRICT

This district is drawn with enlarged detail to show the position of the places concerned in the war. Tatungkau lies just outside the entrance, Antung on the Manchurian side, and Wiju on the Korean side. The river is navigable up to Shaho, which is the great center of trade for this critical district. The crossing of the Yalu by the Russians was largely the cause of the war. Antung lies near the position marked "Russian forts."

NICHOLAS II, CZAR OF RUSSIA

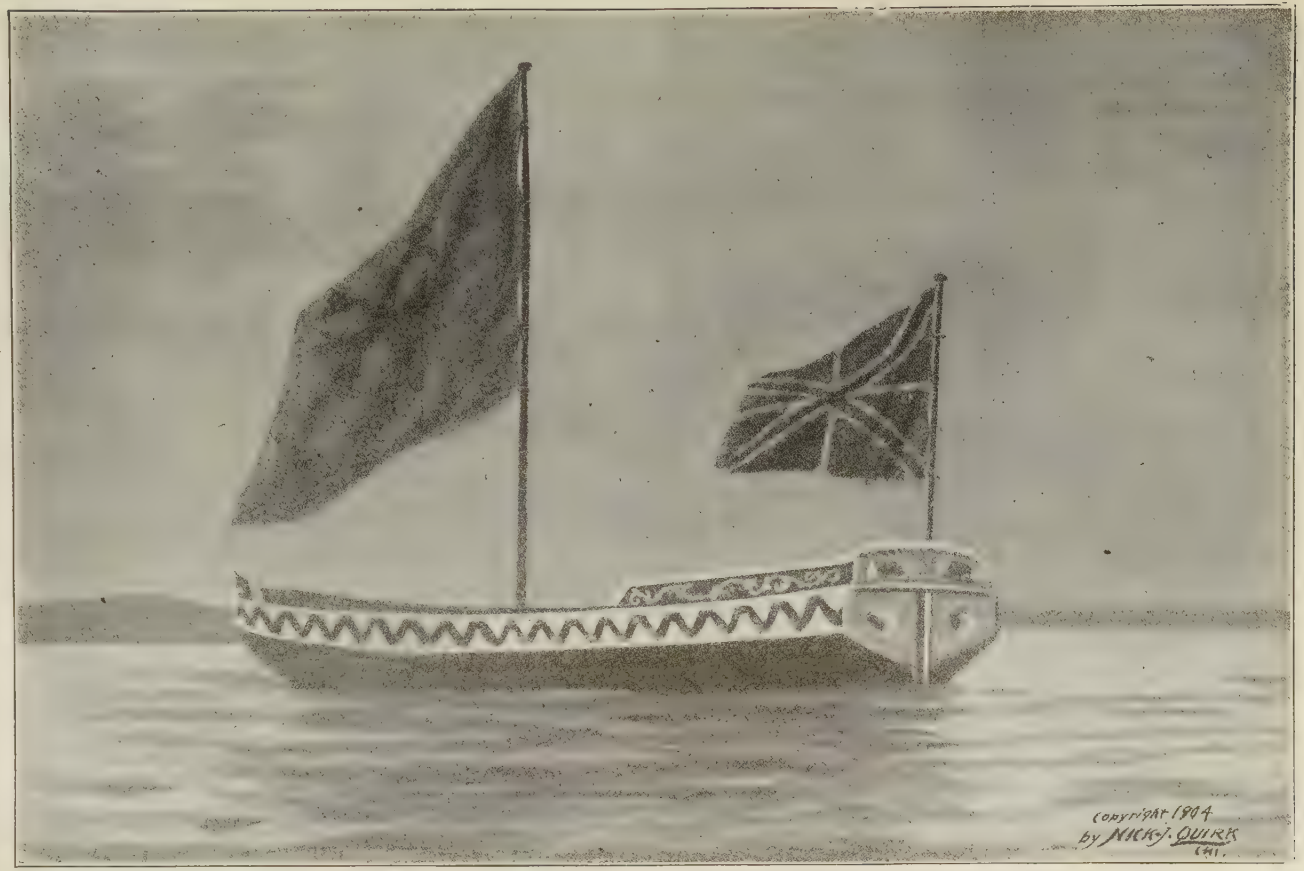
The warlike person in the foreground of the above picture hardly conveys the impression of a man who would suggest the disarmament of the nations of the world. And yet it was the Russian emperor who, a few years ago, advocated universal peace. The photograph, from which the drawing was made, was taken as he was returning to the Imperial Palace after bidding farewell to a departing body of troops.

THE CZAR REVIEWING HIS TROOPS

The annual review of the Russian troops took place just before the outbreak of the war. It was a most impressive sight. The above picture shows the Second Cossack Guards marching past the Czar, who can be readily distinguished in the center, surrounded by a brilliant staff of officers.

THE CZAR ON A TOUR OF INSPECTION

The above snap-shot was taken at St. Petersburg just before the departure of a large body of Russian soldiers for Manchuria. It shows the "ruler of all the Russias" in the act of examining the mechanism of a field gun. His parting with the troops was most affecting. With voice trembling with emotion, he said: "Go, my brothers, and may God be with you."



"THE LITTLE FATHER OF THE RUSSIAN FLEET"

This boat was presented to the Czar, Ivan the Terrible, by Good Queen Bess. Peter the Great played with it when a boy, and sailed her on a lake. This led to the interest later developed in naval matters and the founding of the Russian navy —his first warships being little better than copies of this craft. He christened her with the above title, a name dear to Russians, and regarded as reverentially as the English love Nelson's line-of-battle-ship, Victory.

RED CROSS HEADQUARTERS AT OSAKA

The above photograph of a group of prominent Red Cross officials was taken just before their departure for the front. The Japanese branch of this great organization has a membership of nearly one million and is a very powerful and effective body.

IN THE RUSSIAN TRENCHES

The above picture shows the capture of the Russian fortifications on the top of Nanshan Hill. In the face of battery after battery of artillery, and line after line of intrenched infantry, the Japanese troops fought their way inch by inch, foot by foot to the battery-crowned crest of the height, and drove the enemy southward toward Port Arthur.

THE COSSACK LANCE

A troop of Siberian Cossacks charged the Japanese line at Vagenfuchu with lances, attacking both flanks. It was a sight worth seeing, when, at the word of command, the Russian squadron dashed furiously against the Japanese troops, but like the "thin red line" at Waterloo, the Japanese met the onset without a waver.

Then there is the chunk-kok, or upland rice, which is drier than the paddy-field variety and is used largely for making rice flour and brewing beer. The third kind is grown on the slopes of mountains and is a wild rice. It is smaller and harder than the other kinds, and, as it will withstand the weather and remain perfectly sound for ten years, it is used to provision garrisons.

Varieties of Beans.

A principal staple of export from the peninsula is the "horse bean." It is supposed by Koreans to have originated in the northwestern China, and derives its name from the fact that it is used largely for fodder. The horse bean grows most abundantly in Kyong-syang (the southern province), though it is common all over the country.

Other varieties distributed in different provinces are the black bean, the green bean, the oil bean, the white cap bean, the yellow bean, the brown bean and the chestnut bean. According to Mr. Hamilton, the importance of these different species of pulse to the Korean cannot be overestimated. They provide him with the oily and nitrogenous element which are lacking in rice. As a rule, they constitute about one-sixth of his food.

Other Products.

The value of barley to the Koreans is due partly to the fact that it is the first grain to germinate in the spring. It carries the people on until the millet and rice crops are ready. Barley and wheat are raised more or less extensively throughout Korea for the purpose of making wine and beer. Barley yields spring and autumn crops, and wheat yields only a winter crop.

The crops of wheat, by the way, are small, except in Pyong-an, the northwestern province. Of millet there are six varieties, the price of the finer qualities being the same as that obtained for rice. Oats are a staple food in the more mountainous regions. From the stalk of the oat the Koreans make a famous paper which is used in the Emperor's palaces.

Of sorghum, three kinds are grown in Korea, but sugar cannot be

extracted from it. Herein lies a marked difference between the peninsula and China. As regards animal food the Korean, like the Chinese, may be said to be omniverous. Dog meat is in great request at certain seasons.

Pork and beef are eaten with the blood undrained from the carcass. Birds are cooked with the lights, giblets, heads and claws intact. Fish that are sun-dried, and highly malodorous, are acceptable. Cooking is not always considered necessary. In Korea, as in China, a species of small fish is preferred raw, dipped into some piquant sauce.

CHAPTER XX.

SIBERIA AND MANCHURIA

Relation of Siberia to Russia—How Separated from Manchuria—Inhabitants—How the Country Was Settled—Siberian Prisoners—Manchuria at the Beginning of the War—Harbin the Moscow of Asia—A Commercial Power—Natural History of Eastern Asia.

AMERICANS have been accustomed to look upon Siberia as one of the most miserable countries of the world, inhabited only by ticket-of-leave men, or convicts, and it is only during very recent years that this estimation of the northernmost country of Asia has been modified. Today it is traversed by the longest railway line in the world, its length being more than twice that of the connecting systems comprising any one of the lines between New York and San Francisco. The Amur River, one of the greatest waterways of the world, forms the boundary line between Manchuria and Eastern Siberia for the greater distance across the north of Manchuria.

What Exile Really Means.

To most men in our country "exiled to Siberia" is looked upon as a banishment from home and home associations. The great majority of the exiles are composed of peasants who, through want of sobriety or steady work, failed to lay by sufficient money to transport them to the land of gold, as they called Siberia, and hence committed offenses of sufficient gravity to secure a passage to this Eldorado at the expense of the Czar. Should the convict prove obedient to the penal regulations he is immediately paroled and very little thought paid in old Russia to the incident of his life for which he was sent to Siberia.

There are today in the larger towns of Siberia very many leading citizens, prominent men in the professions of law and medicine and even in civil administration, who have been banished from that society

into which they were born. In the new land these men have, in a very great majority of cases, begun new lives and have proved themselves good citizens and most desirable acquisitions to the civilization of the rough frontier life.

The Class Known As Colonists.

Fully one-half of the exiles are not, strictly speaking, criminals at all, but are sent across the Ural Mountains into Asiatic Russia because they are a nuisance and expense to the parish in Russia where they formerly lived. These are the ones that the police are subject to keep their eyes upon. They are classed as colonists.

The purely criminal prisoners are of two classes: First, those who have forfeited all civil rights; second, those who, though condemned and undergoing long sentences, are allowed to retain the hope of paying their debt to society and of regaining their lost positions in the world at some future time. The convict of the first category is indeed unknown to the world; his property goes to his heirs, his wife can remarry without divorce. The sentence which has been imposed upon the husband-criminal carries with it for the wife a divorce.

Family Ties Severed.

The passage across the Urals severs all ties between family and friends. His name is taken from him, consequently his signature is legally worthless. He is a roving, nameless creature. The second class, those who are not deprived of their civil rights by sentence of court, however heavy the sentence may be imposed upon them, have really nothing to complain of, except the lot of a colonist in a new land. If they behave well, they, too, are almost immediately paroled; they become free colonists in every respect save one: they cannot return to Russia until the expiration of the sentence to which they were originally condemned. In this way many of them are probably saved from the degrading associations into which they fell. Such a colonist is given a piece of land, an outfit and a sum of money. The government seeks to draw the veil of charity over his past. Nearly all of his neighbors are men with unfortunate antecedents similar to his own. They shift for

themselves and average well as citizens. Wives are permitted to accompany their husbands when exiled to Siberia, except in the first class.

The most conclusive proof as to what the life of the average convict really is is furnished upon the best of evidence by convicts themselves, who certainly ought to know when they are well off. Not more than one-fourth of the exiles, according to the government reports, elect to return to Russia when their time expires. It is claimed that they have found life in Siberia much more agreeable than in Russia, so they become colonists of their own free will and choice and remain in Siberia.

The Liberty of Political Prisoners.

The political prisoners have great liberty. The usual short period of confinement before the ticket-of-leave is granted to this class is generally sent in the prison at Nertschinsk. So far from the political prisoner being worked to death, as is generally represented, they neither work in mines nor perform manual labor anywhere else, they are not compelled to work. When prisoners of this class are without the means to purchase the luxuries which they are permitted to enjoy, the prison authorities endeavor to procure for them remunerative work so that they may with their savings eke out the rude fare of the prison table.

Convicts Divided Into Bands.

Among the Siberian prisoners are found Japanese, Chinese, Koreans and Russians, all messing and rooming together. They are divided into companies of ten, each division electing a captain, who becomes responsible in the eyes of the prison authorities for the nine men who have honored him with their votes.

Whenever a detachment of ten men is responsible for some infringement of prison rules and the individual delinquent cannot be ascertained the captain receives the punishment. This system works well, for when the captain has to bear the brunt of all punishment, his nine companions not unnautrally feel bound to spare him the infliction of punishment as often as they reasonably can out of the brotherly feeling which has sprung up from among a common misfortune.

The Largest Country of Asia.

It was more than three hundred years ago when Vasil Yermak, a Cossack criminal, set out with a band of followers across the Ural Mountains to what was then an unknown country. He penterated Western Siberia and held the territory. He died soon after his arrival there, however, and the country in 1584 was claimed by Russia.

To the original Siberia much has been added on the south taken piecemeail from the Chinese Empire, and strange it is that this immense area of 4,833,496 square miles, remained so long a blank in its possibilities.

Siberia, the largest country of Asia, has been looked upon as a barren and unproductive country. It has been considered by the world as a land of exile and fit for little else. Today it is traversed by the longest railway line in the world, its length being more than twice that of the connecting systems comprising any one of the lines btween New York and San Francisco.

Russian Occupation of Manchuria.

Russia furnished in Manchuria a record of amazement in the building of one of her cities, almost rivaling in rapidity the astonishing record of our own great West.

In the building of such cities as Vladivostock, Dalny, and Port Arthur, Russia demonstrated her power and purpose on the Pacific in line with the world's conception of her character; but in the construction of the wonderful city of Harbin she displayed an altogether different type of activity from what we are prone to attribute to her.

It is in this city more than in all the others combined that Russia asserted her intentions of becoming an active industrial force in the affairs of the Orient, and her people gave the place the title of the Moscow of Asia.

The City of Harbin.

The city is located on the Sungari River, at the point where the Manchurian branch of the Siberian Railway crosses the stream and

where the Chinese Eastern branch starts south to Dalny and Port Arthur. It is about 350 miles west of Vladivostock and 600 miles north of Port Arthur. Its location is the geographical center of Manchuria, and from present prospects it is to become the commercial center as well. The city is surrounded on all sides for hundreds of miles with a rich and productive agricultural country, producing corn, wheat, oats, barley, beans, millet, hemp, tobacco, vegetables, and some fruits. Minerals and timber and great areas of grazing lands also surround it.

The place consists of the old town, three miles from the central depot; Prestin, or the river town, the present commercial center; and the administration town, in close proximity to the railway station. Before the railway engineers established this as their headquarters there was no native town in this vicinity, and the entire place is therefore a Russian product.

A Russian Metropolis.

At the beginning of the war it was as distinctly a Russian city as though it were located in the heart of Russia, and none but Russians and Chinese were permitted to own land, construct buildings, or engage in any permanent enterprise. The city was created by the Russian Government, under the management of the Manchurian Railway Company. The land for many miles in each direction had been secured so as to make it impossible for any foreign influence to secure a profit or foothold close to the city, and foreigners were not recognized as having any rights whatever, but were permitted there by sufferance. The chief railway engineer was the administrator of the city, and had complete control of everything, but a new scheme for the government of Manchuria suggested some form of municipal organization.

Population of Harbin.

In 1900 the place began to assume importance as a center of railway management, and in 1901 the population had grown to 12,000 Russians; in 1902, to 20,000; by May, 1903, to 44,000; and in October, 1903, a census showed a population of 60,000, exclusive of soldiers. Of these, 400 are Japanese and 300 of all other nationalities, including Germans,

Austrians, Greeks and Turks. All the rest were Russians. There were no Americans.

The railway and administration employees, including families, constituted 11,000 of the population. The Chinese population was about 40,000, located in a special settlement. The ratio of women to men was as follows: Japanese, 120 per cent; Russians, 44 per cent; Chinese, 1.8 per cent; average of women, 14.3 per cent.

A Railway Center.

In 1904 Harbin was the center of the entire railway administration of Manchuria, and, as the Russian commercial enterprises of the far East were under the direction of the railway company, it was also the center of Russian industrial and commercial development. It was the headquarters of the civil courts and the chief military post, and the main center of control of all the vast army of railway guards. The administration city, therefore, consisted of all the public and private buildings and shops necessary for these various departments. Residences for the employees covered the largest area of this division of this marvelous city. The total administration expenditure on the city at the outbreak of hostilities was $15,450,000.

Harbin was started primarily as a military center and an administration town for the government and direction of railway affairs. Its growth into a splendid commercial and manufacturing city was not originally provided for by the promoters and it was somewhat of a surprise to them, but the fever of making it a great Russian commercial and manufacturing city took possession of the railway management, and every system of promotion and protection that could be devised to increase its growth along these lines was energetically encouraged.

The capital for most of the private enterprises was furnished by Siberian Jews. Chinese furnished money for the construction of some of the finest private buildings, such as hotels, store rooms, etc. In the administration part of the city no private buildings of any kind were permitted. The Russian-Chinese Bank was the only banking institution in the place.

Industries of Harbin.

The leading industry of Harbin was the manufacture of flour. The next industry of importance was the production of the Russian liquor, vodka. In 1904 there were several companies engaged in the meat-packing business. They cured hams, bacon, and all varieties of smoked meats and produced excellent articles. The hogs and cattle were grain fed and make splendid meats, and the Russians are experts in preparing it for markets.

Manchuria is productive in wheat, cattle, sheep, hogs, millet, barley, oats, corn, beans, furs, hides, wool, bristles, bean oil, bean cake, hemp, tobacco, and timber, and has various undeveloped mineral resources; in fact, it has all the natural elements for the foundation of a great city.

Russian Investment in Manchuria.

The chief engineer in charge of the construction of the Russian railways in Manchuria, stated that Russia, at the time of the war with Japan, had expended in railways in Manchuria $139,050,000. Add to this her investments in fortifications and in the construction of the cties of Port Arthur, Dalny, Harbin, and other places and it is a very moderate estimate to place her investments in permanent properties in Manchuria at a total of $257,500,000

Russia's Commercial Advantage.

The following is from a United States government report issued just before the commencement of hostilities between Russia and Japan:

"A study of conditions in Vladivostock, Harbin, and other districts is not particularly encouraging to the idea of extension of American trade in Manchuria in any line that Russia is prepared to supply. A knowledge of the earnest intention of the Russo-Chinese Bank to press the sale of Russian goods, a slight insight into the methods and determination of Russian railways to find a market for the products of Russia, and the interest displayed in developing resources along their lines for Russians and Chinese only, taken in connection with the natural wealth and resources of the country, do not favor the hope that under a Russian regime our trade in Manchuria will be as large as it was before.

A Great Problem.

"If we take into further consideration the fact that the Russian government—by subsidies and bounties and through its banks and railways—is engaging in industrial and commercial pursuits and calculate the cheap food, cheap and reliable labor, and the vast mineral resources that she will have at her command on the Pacific, the question of the Manchurian market becomes comparatively insignificant, and we find ourselves face to face with the greater problem of the market of all Asia.

"With millions of cheap and efficient Chinese laborers, with vast coal fields bordering on the Pacific, with mountains of iron and copper, vast forests, and enormous areas of agricultural land—producing now the cheapest food in the world—what is to prevent Russia, if her apparent plans are realized, from becoming a dominating factor in the commercial development of the Far East. One cannot view the marvelous growth of a city like Harbin or observe the cities of Vladivostock, Dalny, and Port Arthur, and the great Siberian Railway without pondering seriously the meaning of it all in the future of Russia on the Pacific."

Chief Food Crops of Eastern Asia.

In the plains country of Manchuria around Mukden, the Manchurian farmers raise vast quantities of indigo, while the coast regions and river bottoms yield rice, one of the chief food-crops of the Eastern Asiatic peoples.

Further up, we find fields of wheat, barley, and millet, according to the character of the soil and the altitude. While the weather is very cold in winter, falling to ten or fifteen degrees below zero, it is likewise hot in summer, the thermometer reaching ninety to one hundred degrees, and hence the Manchurians also raise cotton and tobacco, in those sections where the soil is suitable.

Domestic Animals of Manchurians.

The principal domestic animals of the Manchurians are the shaggy little pony, common to all China, and horned cattle.

One of the most important creatures of the country, however, is

the dog. This animal is about the size of the American setter, with a long ridge of hair running down the back, with long legs and ears, giving it a very wolfish appearance; in color they are black, white, fawn, mottled, and some brindled. The skins of these animals have become an important article of commerce, being exported to the London fur market, where they are sold for robes, to the amount of three to four hundred thousand dollars' worth a year.

There are thousands of small dog farms, scattered over the country, and along the eastern border of Mongolia, where from a score to some hundreds of dogs are annually reared on each farm, where they constitute in many cases the chief source of wealth.

Their value principally lies in the fact that the skins take a brilliant black dye, and thus colored are manufactured into sleigh robes and are seen throughout all the colder parts of the world, where they are used by people who generally do not know what they are.

This, however, is true of most furs.

There are also many goat farms of a similar character, whose product not only produces food for the natives, but is sent all over the world in the shape of rugs and robes.

The Russian Sable.

Northern Manchuria is one of the chief fields for the production of the famous "Russian sable," a little animal somewhat resembling the American mink in general appearance, except that it lives in the forests instead of taking to the water.

This sable is the most valuable fur in the world, in proportion to the size of the skin; while no larger than a small mink, it usually brings in the market not less than $25 in an unfinished condition. This costly fur, while found throughout Siberia, is most abundant in the lower Amur valley and in Northern Manchuria of any place in the world.

Its pursuit forms a very important business in these regions. The hunter has many a hard day of exposure and toil in its chase, following it through the snow through the vast wastes of the mountain and timbered regions during the most inclement season of the year. The little

creature is taken in traps, and if the Manchu hunter can only succeed in getting three or four of them during the winter he thinks himself fortunate. Many of these skins are used for Mandarin robes, while the tails are exported to the London market. The complete skin is also sent all over the world, where it is highly appreciated in all the fashionable capitals of Europe and America.

Inasmuch as one of the most popular furs sold by dealers in America is jet black, called sable, which is in reality American skunk, it may be interesting to mention the exact color of the Russian sable. The skin is from nine to twelve inches long, including the tail, which is four to five inches; the color varies considerably, brown and dark brown being the predominant shades; light brown, silvery, and animals intermixed with silvery or white hairs are by no means uncommon. Once in a great while, a pure white one is found. From some neighborhoods the ground of the fur, close to the skin, has a bluish tint, and the tail is sometimes tipped with white. The finest dark or almost black skins are usually bought for Paris, London and New York, while the silvery skins are sent to Russia.

The Thibetan Bear.

One of the largest wild animals of Manchuria and Korea is the Himalayan or Thibetan bear. This is the animal which the Germans call Kragenbar. This animal, which extends from northern India northeastward, lives in the caves of the mountains, and is a fierce animal, difficult to dislodge from his native haunts. His color is black, grizzly, or light brownish grey. The best known form of this animal has a black, glossy coat, with a white crescent on his chest and a patch of the same color on the chin. The animal is very retiring in his habits, and it is said that he is willing to be let alone, but that when pressed and hunted to his den he is a very difficult customer to handle. Like "B'rer Rabbit," he lies low in the daytime, but at night sallies forth, and will eat most anything that comes to hand. He will ravage the crops growing in the fields, will pluck the fruits, gather acorns and nuts, and does not despise now and then a kid or a puppy from the Manchurian stock farms.

The Bushy Tailed Cat.

In Manchuria is found an animal which is very little known, although of late years its skin has found its way into the fur markets of the world in considerable numbers. It is called the red-spotted or bushy-tailed cat. The animal is also found in Japan; its general color is of a light brown, covered with numerous red spots, from whence it derives its name. It is about the size of an ordinary cat, perhaps slightly larger, and while its life story has not yet been written it presumably comes from the wilder mountainous regions of the countries it inhabits.

Other Wild Animals.

Manchuria also possesses wolves of two kinds—the red, or mountain wolf, and the common wolf, which is spread throughout the Eastern continent, formerly reaching to the British Isles. There is also a bright-colored, rather small red fox, a beautiful little animal, recently popular for the manufacture of ladies' collarettes, both in natural tints and dyed a glossy black, or smoky blue.

There are also to be found the stag, roebuck, reindeer, lynx, hedgehog, rat, ermine, pole-cat, bat, and the squirrel, common to the northern half of the Eastern Hemisphere, and well known to commerce. In Manchuria, the back of the squirrel is a very dark blue. It is a peculiarity of this animal that starting in the British Isles and France of a grayish color it gradually grows darker until by the time it reaches Siberia it has become blue, and when it reaches Japan it is black. It is the same animal all the way from England to Nippon; white underneath and gray, blue or black above.

Birds of Manchuria.

Manchuria has likewise an abundance of birds, perhaps the most famous of which is the Mongolian lark; this little fellow takes the place occupied by the mocking-bird in America. It is trapped in great numbers and shipped to the cities of China and the East, where it is very popular as a cage bird. It is a remarkable vocalist, imitating the sound of any living thing almost with which it comes in contact; it learns the

songs of other birds, the crowing of cocks, the cackling of hens, the barking of dogs, the hissing and mewing of cats, and from this peculiarity it is held in the highest esteem as a pet in almost every Chinese home. The catching and marketing of this lark forms a no-inconsiderable source of revenue for the Manchurian peasants.

Among other birds observed in various parts of the country may be mentioned the Mongolian crane, the eagle, doves, kingfisher, pintail duck, dusky duck, several varieties of teal, black duck, blue heron, buzzard, one or two varieties of hawk, the raven, kestrel, white crane, oyster-catcher, bank swallow, several gulls, wagtail, the osprey or fish hawk, blue-jay, several varieties of wood-pecker, nut-hatch, white-winged tern, common tern, short-eared owl, red-necked nightingale, one or two members of the partridge tribe and the black thrush.

Trees and Plants.

Among the trees and plants we may mention the fir, two varieties of maple, alder, columbine, wormwood, several varieties of birch, dog-wood, hawthorne, three or four varieties of cypress, spindle tree, gentian, walnut, juniper, pitch pine, poplar, wintergreen, Mongolian oak, Rhododendron, the bramble, elder, spiraea, thyme, lime-tree, several varieties of whortleberry.

One of the failures morally of the Chinese is opium smoking. While the English by force of arms have opened the ports of China in order to give a new market to the poppy farmers of India, the Manchurians produce a considerable amount of the opium used in China, and large fields of poppies are cultivated in this province.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE END OF DIPLOMACY

The First Shot—Port Arthur the Scene—The Russian View—Statement of Japanese Minister at Washington—Hostilities at Chemulpo—Russia's Reply in the Hands of Alexieff—Preparation for War—The Unanimity of the Japanese Nation—The Diverse Elements of Russia—Russia's Presentation of the Diplomatic Negotiations—The Czar's Supreme Manifesto—Secretary Hay's Note.

WHEN Japan broke off diplomatic relations with Russia, on February 5, 1904, Asia, containing half of the world's population, became a theater of war. Actual hostilities, however, were not inaugurated until February 8th, three days after diplomatic relations had ceased. Reports early indicated that Japan fired the first shot of the war, Port Arthur being the scene of conflict.

Russia likened the sinking of her warships at Port Arthur to the blowing up of the Maine in the harbor of Havana. The case, however, is far from analogous to the opening up of the Spanish-American war. This comparison was advanced by Russia and her friends, the French, in the heat of their excitement over the Russian losses.

When Hostilities Really Began.

The Japanese minister to the United States at Washington wrote a statement on February 11th for the author of this work, in which he declared that the war began at Chemulpo, Korea, when the Russians fired upon the Japanese fleet which was convoying transports loaded with soldiers to go ashore on Korean soil.

However this may be, the hostilities at Port Arthur and Chemulpo began on the same day, namely, Monday, February 8th.

It was on February 4th that the Russian reply to Japan regarding the former's intentions in Manchuria and Korea was forwarded to Viceroy Alexieff. It remained in his hands for approval with a view to presenting it to the Japanese government at Tokio.

The Japanese had a very correct idea concerning what Russia's answer was to be, and the "Little Brown Yankees" of the far East decided that it was not satisfactory. This conclusion being reached, carried with it the determination, on the part of Japan, that the only alternative was war.

Preparations for War.

There is abundant evidence to show that Japan had been preparing for war during several weeks. Great quantities of supplies in the way of ammunition and food products were purchased in the United States. The ships of the Nippon Yusem Kasia (Japan Steamship line), as well as the ships of other Japanese merchant lines, were impressed for army transports and auxiliary cruisers. There is evidence, also, that Japan had sent some troops into Korea before hostilities between the naval fleets actually began.

On the other hand, there is no doubt but that Russia had secretly invaded portions of Korea adjacent to Manchuria with her troops. In other ways also, Russia, undoubtedly, was making every preparation for the anticipated war with Japan. But Russia is big and massive. Her population is a very mixed one, creating a great diversity in the sentiments of her people.

Unanimity of Purpose.

This is not true of Japan. When it comes to war the Japanese, as a people, stand with their government to the last man. There is no country in the world, without a doubt, where patriotism is a passion more than it is among Japan's forty odd million people. This condition tended to inflame the entire Japanese population to a war fever of the most intense type. The sentiment for war, on the part of the Japanese against Russia was universal. There was not a single element among the Mikado's subjects which did not actually favor immediate war.

The Japanese have been in a warlike attitude towards Russia ever since the former's complete victory in 1895 over the Chinese. In that war Japan took possession of the Lia-o-tung Peninsula of Manchuria, at the extreme point of which is now located Russia's naval and military city, Port Arthur, and the new commercial city and port, Dalny,

fifteen miles from Port Arthur, which Russia has essayed to establish as the great mart of the far East. The name of Dalny was adopted in 1901 by Russia.

The maps and atlases made previous to that year indicate the place where Dalny is located by the old Chinese name, Talien-wan.

Lost the Fruits of Her Victory.

The Japanese believed, and with a strong element of truth on their side, that she had lost the fruits of her victory over China to Russia. The world knows that Russia, by diplomacy with the cowed and fear-stricken Chinese, has secured a foothold in Manchuria which made that province of the Chinese Empire, to all intents and purposes, a Russian possession.

Russia is a land-locked nation, with, practically, no territory facing on the great oceans. If there is on ambition of Russia's that is paramount to all others, it is the desire to control the gateway to northern China, the Gulf of Pechili, into which the sharply pointed Manchuria Peninsula projects for more than two hundred miles.

Japan Justified in Her Suspicions.

Korea is a peninsula also. In connects with the main land of the continent right against Manchuria. The two countries border each other for nearly four hundred miles. With the exception of the peninsula end of Manchuria that country is entirely shut off from the sea by Korea. Korea extends into that part of the Pacific Ocean called the Yellow Sea and the Sea of Japan for five hundred miles against the waters of the former and seven hundred miles against the waters of the latter. This indicates what an enormous peninsula Korea is and the extensive coast line of navigable waters which she possesses. The Korean Peninsula commands the approach to the Manchurian Peninsula. Should Korea ever become a possession of one of the great powers it will be seen what advantage would accrue to its possessor as a naval and military base commanding the situation in the north of the far East better than any other territory that could be occupied. There is no doubt but that Russia has had longing eyes on this choicest of strategic points

in the far East. There is every reason to believe that Japan was justified in looking with great suspicion upon Russia's intentions regarding Korea.

Korea extends its long arm out from Manchuria in a southeasterly direction until its farthest end is very close to the southern end of Japan. Fusan, Korea's southernmost port, faces the entrance to the Japan Sea, the ideal and placid sea of the world. From Moji to Nagasaki it is a little more than a long ferry-boat ride across to Korea's extreme point.

Japan Fighting for Her Life.

It will be seen how Russia would become a menace to Japan should she become possessed of Korea. The Japanese believe that their very existence depends upon Korea maintaining her independence and integrity. Korea, the hermit nation, is powerless to defend herself against any power that might attack her.

To sum up, Russia desired to come into possession of these two far Eastern countries, in particular, to give her complete command of the ocean in the far East. In other words, Russia's greed for territory led her to encroach upon Japan regardless of the duties and rights of the latter in the far East, as well as those of the other great powers of the world. At least, this was the Japanese way of looking at the question. Those who look at the problem from the Japanese standpoint claim that Russia has brought this war upon herself by exasperating Japan with her consummate greed and selfishness. On the other hand, Japan is fighting for her life as a nation.

Russia's Presentation of Diplomatic Relations.

On February 9th the Russian foreign office at St. Petersburg sent out a lengthy official statement of the diplomatic negotiaions which led up to the rupture. The full text of the paper from the Russian point of view follows:

"Last year the Tokio cabinet, under the pretext of establishing the balance of power and a more settled order of things on the shores of the Pacific, submitted to the imperial government a proposal for a

revision of the existing treaties with Korea. Russia consented, and Viceroy Alexieff was charged to draw up a project for a new understanding with Japan in co-operation with the Russian minister at Tokio, who was instructed with the negotiations with the Japanese government. Although the exchange of views with the Tokio cabinet on this subject were of a friendly character, Japanese social circles and the local and foreign press attempted in every way to produce a warlike ferment among the Japanese and to drive the government into an armed conflict with Russia. Under the influence thereof the Tokio cabinet began to formulate greater and greater demands in the negotiations, at the same time taking most extensive measures to make the country ready for war.

"All these circumstances could not, of course, disturb Russia's equanimity, but they induced her also to take military and naval measures. Nevertheless, to preserve peace in the far East, Russia so far as her incontestable rights and interests permitted, gave the necessary attention to the demands of the Tokio cabinet and declared herself ready to recognize Japan's privileged commercial and economic position in the Korean Peninsula, with the concession of the right to protect it by military force in the event of disturbances in that country. At the same time, while rigorously observing the fundamental principle of her policy regarding Korea, whose independence and integrity were guaranteed by previous understandings with Japan and by treaties with other powers, Russia insisted on three points:

Insisted on Three Points.

"1. On a mutual and unconditional guarantee of this principle.

"2. On an undertaking to use no part of Korea for strategic purposes, as the authorization of such action on the part of any foreign power was directly opposed to the principle of the independence of Korea.

"3. On the preservation of the full freedom of navigation of the straits of Korea.

"The project elaborated in this sense did not satisfy the Japanese government, which in its last proposals not only declined to accept the

conditions which appeared as the guarantee of the independence of Korea, but also began at the same time to insist on provisions to be incorporated in a project regarding the question of Manchuria.

"Such demands on the part of Japan, naturally, were inadmissible, the question of Russia's position in Manchuria concerning in the first place China, but also all the powers having commercial interests in China. The imperial government, therefore, saw absolutely no reason to include in a special treaty with Japan regarding Korean affairs any provisions concerning territory occupied by Russian troops. The imperial government, however, did not refuse, so long as the occupation of Manchuria lasts, to recognize both the sovereignty of the Emperor of China in Manchuria and also the rights acquired there by the other powers through treaties with China. A declaration to this effect had already been made to the foreign cabinets.

"In view of this the imperial government, after charging its representative at Tokio to present its reply to the last proposal of Japan, was justified in expecting the Tokio cabinet to take into account the considerations set forth above, and that it would appreciate the wish manifested by Russia to come to a peaceful understanding with Japan. Instead of this the Japanese government, not even awaiting this reply, decided to break off negotiations and to suspend diplomatic relations. The imperial government, while laying on Japan the full responsibility for any consequences of such a course of action, will await the development of events, and the moment it becomes necessary will take the most decisive measures for the protection of its rights and interests in the far East."

Nicholas' Supreme Manifesto.

The Official Messenger, the Russian government organ published at St. Petersburg, printed on February 10th the following "supreme manifest":

"By the grace of God we, Nicholas II., emperor and autocrat of all the Russias, etc., make known to all our loyal subjects:

"In our solicitude for the maintenance of peace, which is dear to

our heart, we made every exertion to consolidate tranquility in the far East. In these peaceful aims we signified assent to the proposals of the Japanese government to revise agreements regarding Korean affairs existing between the two governments. However, the negotiations begun upon this subject were not brought to a conclusion, and Japan, without awaiting the receipt of the last responsive proposals of our government, declared the negotiations broken off and diplomatic relations with Russia dissolved.

"Without advising us of the fact that the breach of such relations would, in itself, mean an opening of warlike operations, the Japanese government gave orders to its torpedo boats to suddenly attack our squadron standing in the outer harbor of the fortress of Port Arthur. Upon receiving reports from the viceroy in the far East about this, we immediately commanded him to answer the Japanese challenge with armed force.

"Making known, this our decision, we, with unshaken faith in the help of the Almighty, and with a firm expectation of and reliance upon the unanimous willingness of all our loyal subjects to stand with us in defense of the fatherland, ask God's blessing upon our stalwart land and naval forces.

"Given at St. Petersburg, January 27, 1904, A. D. (new calendar, February 9, 1904), and in the tenth year of our reign. Written in full by the hand of "His imperial majesty,

"NICHOLAS."

The Famous Hay Note.

The United States department of state, by our Secretary of State, John Hay, on February 10th issued a statement to the powers of the world defining the position of this government and at the same time inviting the great powers to join us in the stand we had taken. This statement will go down in history as the "Hay note." It was issued after our Secretary of State had obtained a number of preliminary exchanges of views between this government and the other governments interested in Chinese affairs and in keeping the commerce of that

country open. The note which was sent to Ambassador McCormick, our diplomatic representative at St. Petersburg, and Minister Griscom, our representative at Tokio, as well as to the other leading European powers, and to Peking, China, follows:

"You will express to the minister for foreign affairs the earnest desire of the government of the United States that in the course of the military operations which have begun between Russia and Japan the neutrality of China and in all practicable ways her administrative entity shall be respected by both parties, and that the area of hostilities shall be localized and limited as much as possible, so that undue excitement and disturbance of the Chinese people may be prevented and the least possible loss to the commerce and peaceful intercourse of the world may be occasioned.

"(Signed) JOHN HAY."

At the same time this government informed all the powers signatory of the protocol at Peking of its action, and requested similar action on their part.

A Diplomatic Triumph.

In the above short note Secretary Hay added another to his long list of diplomatic triumphs, and the United States was once more enabled by his diplomacy to head the nations in a concurrent effort to preserve the integrity of China. Mr. Hay's note to Russia and Japan, urging them to confine hostilities within as small an area as possible and to respect the neutrality and administrative entity of China, was accepted by Russia as well as by Japan, and all the nations have joined the Washington government in inviting the combatants to agree to the proposition.

CHAPTER XXII.

RUSSIAN AND JAPANESE ARMIES

Japanese Armies—Uniform and Accoutrements of the Russian Troops—Transportation Methods—What the Japanese Soldier Wears—His Knapsack—His Pay—Discipline of the Japanese Army—The Drill—Russians and Japanese Equal in Courage and Discipline—Number of Troops in Field.

THE style of uniform and the manner of living on the part of Russian and Japanese soldiers pitted against each other in the desperate war in the far East, is of particular interest. One who has observed the armies of the Czar and the Mikado in the allied campaign in China during 1900 cannot well forget the dress that was peculiar to each of these armies, as well as the way they lived.

Uniform of Russian Troops.

The uniform generally worn by the enlisted men in the Russian army is apparently the same for all arms except the distinctive marks. It consists of a soft, flat white cap with sloping visor, a white blouse of cotton cloth, very loose and belted at the waist with a leather strap. The trousers are plain black. The foot gear consists of heavy top boots, reaching to the calf of the leg. The winter coat is of black cloth, similar otherwise to the summer blouse.

A characteristic feature of the infantry soldier is that he carries no bayonet scabbard. His bayonet is always fixed and his rifle apparently never out of reach of his hand. The ammunition is carried in pouches on the waist belt. The rations are of the simplest kind, consisting of hard, brown bread, salt, pepper and tea. They are industrious foragers, as was amply proven in the North China campaign, where they supplied meat and other items by this means from the abundant resources of the country.

Russian Troops Have No Tents.

The troops have no tentage. In their camps the men live in houses or huts made of native mats or of other similar material. When on the march or guard duty the discipline of the Russian infantry seems to be up to the excellent standard which it has the reputation of maintaining. The handling of their artillery, however, seems to be awkward to those who have witnessed the American artillery in operation.

The Russian cavalry consists entirely of Cossacks. They are mounted on rough, shaggy little ponies, of about the size of the diminutive Indian ponies of the West. They carry heavy, slightly curved saber and rifle slung over the shoulder. The Russian transportation, other than the native Manchurian carts, consists of small, very low four-wheeled wagons, drawn by two ponies, and seem to have no features that any nation would consider worthy of making a pattern of.

The Traveling Field Kitchen.

A notable feature of the Russian equipment, however, is the traveling field kitchen, consisting of a boiler, mounted on a special wagon, so arranged that it can be in operation while in motion. The arrangement apparently is a very convenient one, and presents some desirable features. The meals of the men is always in process of cooking during the march, in order to be ready when the halt is made. When it is necessary to travel by rail, this wagon kitchen is put into a flat car and the process of cooking goes on while the train is in motion. These kitchens on wheels are also operated on river steamers and steamships when in transport. The apparatus is undoubtedly one that gives a very prompt and satisfactory service of the men's food. The military experts of the United States have recently become very much interested in this idea which originated in the Russian army.

Uniform of the Japanese Troops.

The summer uniform of the Japanese soldier is of the same cut as that for winter service, but is of white cotton material. It is cool and

easily laundered, but has the serious defect of being extremely conspicuous. The winter uniform, with the exception of the cavalry trousers, which are red, is of a dark blue woolen material, warm and very neat in appearance. The cap is slightly bell shaped, with flat crown and small drooping visor. It is ornamented by a narrow yellow band at the junction of the crown and sides, and another band or braid at the top of the sides, about one and one-half inches wide, yellow in all cases, except the commisariat, in which case it is a blue or medium intensity. All caps have a star in the center of the front just above the vistor.

Picturesque But Conspicuous.

The blouse is fairly close fitting, extends about three inches below the belt, and is fastened with five buttons. It has a standard collar faced with the color of the arm, red for infantry, green for cavalry, yellow for artillery, blue for commissariat, and dark red for engineers. A strap about two inches wide extends from the neck to the point of the shoulder and has on it the number of the regiment. In the cavalry this strap is replaced by a braided shoulder knot, and the blouse has the back seam ornamented with yellow stripes and the front with five horizontal stripes of yellow, the ends terminating in falling loops. This ornament, together with the red trousers, makes a very picturesque and striking uniform with the attendant disadvantage of being very conspicuous. In the cavalry the trousers below the knee are cut to fit closely and facilitate the wearing of the boot. In the infantry they fit loosely, but are usually confined by khaki-colored leggings.

Japanese Cavalry.

The cavalry is furnished with boots and the infantry with a rather coarsely made and low cut leather shoe. The foot gear seems much inferior to that used in the United States army. The overcoat is of dark blue, fits loosely, extends nearly to the ankle, is unlined, and furnished with a hood. When not worn it is carried compactly rolled and slung over one shoulder, the ends fastened together on the opposite side of the body. During the warm weather it seems to be carried and used

in lieu of a blanket. The fitting of the uniform is simplified by the great uniformity in the size and build of the Japanese soldier. It should require but a few sizes to furnish a good fit for all the men.

What the Japanese Soldier Carries.

The Japanese have a pack of leather, tanned with the hair on. This pack is not in favor and is usually replaced by an elongated cloth bag about nine inches in diameter. In this bag is carried a reserve supply of sixty rounds of ammunition, some spare parts for the rifle, including a first aide's package, a small package of thread, needles, and buttons, and an emergency ration for one day.

The pail in which is carried the day's ordinary ration is also carried in this bag, except when the pack is worn. In the latter case the pail is carried on top of the pack. The ends of the bag are tied together and the bag is slung over the shoulder opposite to the blanket or overcoat. The soldier has also a small bag similar to our haversack and carried in the same manner, but much smaller, in which he carries certain miscellaneous articles of his own choice.

In the rear pouches thrown across the horses in the Japanese cavalry, is a set of shoes for the horse; also a leather shield, that can be fastened to the hoof by thong for use in emergency. In the front pouches there is always kept the one day emergency ration of rice for both trooper and horse. The horses are extremely small as compared with the American horse, being no more than ponies. The weight they carry, live and dead, is much less than with our cavalry.

What the Japanese Government Pays Its Men.

The Japanese soldiers are divided into three classes, first, second and third; the class being indicated by three, two and one stripe of yellow on the lower part of the sleeve. In time of war they receive their pay every ten days. For that period the third class receive forty-five sen, or twenty-two and a half cents, equal to two and a quarter cents per day. The second class receive sixty sen, or thirty cents (3 cents a day) every ten days. The first class receive eighty sen (40

cents) or 4 cents a day. Corporals one yen 80 sen, or ninety cents, equal to 9 cents a day. Sergeants two yen 80 sen, or $1.40, equal to 14 cents a day. The government compels their soldiers to send their salaries to their dependent families, in fact, the government mails it to the families direct.

The monthly salaries of officers in time of peace are as follows: Sub-lieutenant, thirty-five yen; lieutenant, forty-five yen; captain, sixty-five yen; major, one hundred and ten yen; lieutenant-colonel, one hundred and sixty yen; colonel, two hundred and ten yen; major-general, three hundred and ten yen; lieutenant-general, four hundred and twenty yen; general, five hundred and twenty-five yen.

The officers' salaries are increased by two-fifths in time of war. The Japanese private soldier, when he first enlists, receives a salary of about sixty-seven cents a month. The United States soldier, of the same class, receives just about twenty times as much pay per month. It will be seen that the Japanese enlisted men are advanced, in pay, about one-third after they have served a year or two and have become soldiers of the second class. The advance from second to first class amounts to an increase of twenty-five per cent in wages. The highest price paid the private soldier in Japan, and that after they have served for several years, is about $1.20 per month. It will be observed that the pay of the officers in the Japanese army is very much less than in the United States army.

Rations of the Mikado's Troops.

The rations of the Japanese soldiers consists of about 36 ounces of rice, 4 ounces of meat, and 4 ounces of vegetables. One day's ordinary ration is carried in the soldier's aluminum bucket which serves as his cooking utensil, and the hollow lid of which carries the meat portion. One day's emergency rations consisting of three sacks of very fine quality rice and a can of meat, containing about four ounces, is always carried and can be used only by order of the commanding officer. It is the intention always to keep the regimental transportation sufficiently far to the front to make it unnecessary for the soldiers to carry more than one day's ordinary rations.

Japanese Transportation Methods.

The Japanese transportation consists of carts and pack animals. The cart is very light and is drawn by one pony attended by one man of the transport service. As compared to our army or escort wagons, there is a great loss of man and draught animal labor, for the combatant force of 18,000 the Japanese, in the war in China during 1900, had 4,000 non-combatants and six thousand horses. The cart does have the advantage of not requiring such heavy or substantial bridges and can go through narrower trails.

The pack saddle consists of two padded sides joined by iron arches. The packages are tied to or hung upon the saddle. It is well adapted for supplying ammunition to the firing line. One mule takes two boxes and can be led by the routes giving the most protection.

Excellent Discipline.

The discipline of the Japanese army is most excellent. Its military code has been borrowed from those of Europe, and retains the essential features. There are tribunals for the trial of serious offenses and the punishment is usually imprisonment. The division commander has authority to approve the death sentence and to have the same executed. Company, battalion and regimental commanders can order corrective confinement. The length of time that can be ordered increases with the rank of the commander, the greatest being thirty days.

Only a few years ago, in what Japanese refer to as "feudal times," corrective chastisement (such as cuffing the offender over the head or kicking him on the shins) was used for inattention at drill and like offenses. Now such proceeding is forbidden by their military code.

A Simple Drill.

The drill of the Japanese infantry is characterized by simplicity, directness and precision. In the manual of arms there are but three positions of the piece—order, right shoulder and present. The company is divided into three platoons, and each platoon into four groups; the

habitual formation seems to be in line or column of platoons at about five yards distance. The rear rank stands and marches at about one yard distance from the front rank. The column of route is in fours if the road allows; if the road is too narrow for column of fours, then in column of twos. Fours are formed by all facing to the right (or left) and each alternate file stepping to the right oblique, so as to come abreast of the file immediately in front.

Battle Formation.

In the battle formation, the movements are at a run, the platoon deploys to the front by an oblique fan-shaped movement, the other platoons kneeling. The front seems to be about what the front of a company would be in battalion.

The advance is made by rushes of about fifty yards, file firing being at each halt. The two platoons in support follow, taking advantage of the folds of ground to obtain shelter during the halts. The second platoon takes part in the rapid fire preceding the assault, joining under cover of the fire of the first platoon. The third platoon also comes up to immediately in rear of the firing line and takes part in the assault. In the rushes and the assaults the officers and the non-commissioned officers are in front, dropping back into the line on halting.

The drill is conspicuous by its precision and the attention paid by each soldier. Each one is wide awake to see what he ought to do and does it without much prompting from the file closers. It is very seldom that one of the latter is heard to speak to any of the men.

The Japanese soldier enters the service at twenty-one, serves three years and then goes into the first reserve for five years. After that he goes into the second reserve for four years.

Obedient and Patriotic.

He receives almost no pay, as the scale of wages indicated above show, but is actuated by a most intense patriotism and pride in his position as a soldier. He is very obedient, and yet has an individualism that does not always go with such strict discipline. He has a great curiosity

to see what is going on, both on and off duty as a sentinel he stands at ease, but with an air of showing that he is a sentinel and that he is constantly on the alert.

The compulsory service and strict physical requirements with the system of reserve, allows Japan to put a large body of trained men in the field at short notice. If Japan can keep the armament and equipment on a par with her soldiers she is a most valuable ally and a most formidable enemy.

Russian and Japanese Soldiers Compared.

In the light of history, both the Russian and Japanese soldiers are seen to be first-class fighting men. There is little to choose between them, except that the Russian is far less intelligent and depends more upon leadership than the Japanese. Their courage and discipline may be ranked about equal. The Japanese is a fiery, impetuous fighter, always eager to lead a forlorn hope or storm a battery; the Russian is heavy, dogged and determined to the point of death.

Stubborn but Easily Demoralized.

The British found in the Crimea that when once the Russian infantry occupied a position and got ready to fight it was practically impossible to drive them from that position; it was necessary to kill them all before it could be taken. But, on the other hand, a surprise frequently made them lose their wits and retreat in confusion, and after the loss of their officers they were of little use as an effective fighting force. They simply became a mob, knowing not where to turn or what to do.

The estimate of the Russians was given to the writer by a retired British officer who fought them in most of the battles of the Crimean war and was wounded in the attack on the Redan.

A Strong Spirit of Brotherhood.

The discipline of the Japanese army is not so strict as that of the Russian, but in the judgment of foreign experts it is quite as effective because the men are so keen on doing their duty. They obey readily because they like to be good soldiers, not because they fear their officers.

There is a strong spirit of brotherhood among officers and men in the Japanese army, which is largely due to their experiences in the China-Japanese war and the Peking relief expedition. They have tested each other and been satisfied. The Russian soldier's discipline is stolid—perfect from the military point of view, but devoid of all enthusiasm. He obeys the officer because he has never dreamed of doing anything but obey, even before he became a soldier.

The Japanese soldiers are mainly drawn from the Cho-su clan, to which the emperor, Marquis Ito, and nearly all Japan's leading generals belong. The officers of the navy, on the contrary, belong, with but few exceptions, to the Satsuma clan. All the officers in the Japanese services come from Samurai stock, and their ancestors for over two thousand years were as fine fighting men as the world has ever seen.

Japanese Cavalry Weak.

The weakest branch of the Japanese army is undoubtedly the cavalry. The Japs are not good horsemen, and the breed of horses in Japan is distinctly inferior. Heroic efforts have been made by the Tokio war office in recent years to improve this branch of the service, but without much success. Among other things, a special college, for the education of cavalry officers only, was established.

"The Japanese cavalrymen," an English officer once remarked to the writer, "can master with ease every detail of his work—except how to ride decently. He never learns that."

The Cossacks.

The Cossacks, on the contrary, have the reputation among military experts of being the finest irregular cavalry in the world, and those whom one sees in Russia and central Asia are always splendidly mounted. Of course, it does not follow that they would be equally well mounted in Manchuria and Korea. Native horses will probably be depended on to a large extent, for the transporting capacity of the Siberian railway will be sufficiently taxed in carrying men without bringing their horses.

The Artillery of the Two Nations.

The artillery of the Japanese is a strong arm of the force in number of guns, excellence of material and training of the gunners. The Japanese, as a rule, are not good marksmen, because the eyesight of the entire nation is more or less defective. But men with first-class vision have been picked out for the artillery and the military attaches of the foreign legations at Tokio have praised their shooting over and over again in official reports to the government.

The only defect of the artillery—and it is a serious one—is the inferiority of the horses. The Russian artillery is better horsed and bears a reputation of high efficiency. In the Russo-Turkish war, it may be remembered, the Russian guns were splendidly handled, as a rule.

The Japanese infantry was declared by Gen. Grant, Lord Wolseley, Gen. Chaffee and many other competent observers to be as good as any in the world. "The only thing I would object to in it, if I were an officer," declared a former military attache of the United States legation at Tokio, "is the absolute likeness of the men to one another. They are as like as a dish of peas. I don't see how their officers can tell them apart, and that is awkward, you know, when you are commanding a company."

Officers of Both Services Educated.

Great attention is paid to the education of officers in both services, but the Japanese probably lead in this respect. The military college and academy at Tokio turn out officers of great intelligence and military knowledge. Gen. Grant said they were among the best of their kind in the world, and quite equal to good West Pointers. Many of them are wealthy men belonging to the leading noble families of Japan, but they live in a simple, Spartan style. True to their Samurai traditions, they regard luxury as effeminate and despise foreign officers who waste their time over social "duties" instead of learning their profession. The Japanese officer is quite satisfied to live on dried or salted fish and rice, like his men. Princes of the imperial family did it when they campaigned in Manchuria during the war with China.

Many of the Russian officers are equally hardy, if not so abstemious, for they have received a splendid training in Central Asian campaigns, and in outpost, pioneer, survey and exploring work in Siberia, Tibet, the Pamirs and Manchuria. It is these men, in all probability, who will have charge of the fighting forces of the Russians in Manchuria, for Russia's consistent policy is to employ in Asiatic wars, officers with Asiatic experience.

The officers whose military career has been confined to Moscow, St. Petersburg and other cities of European Russia are men of an entirely different type. Most of them are social butterflies, and they are held in scorn by their comrades in Central Asia and Manchuria—the regions to which every Russian officer who is worth his salt manages to get sent.

Number of Japanese Troops in the Field.

At the outbreak of the war it was estimated that the strength of the regular army of Japan, not including the reserves, when placed on a war footing was about 200,000 men; the reserves added 35,000 more, and the territorial army supplied 200,000 more, making a total of 435,000 men.

It was estimated that Russia could not put into Manchuria, properly provisioned and equipped for service, more than three or four hundred thousand men. Not that Russia had not sufficient men to expand her force almost without limit, but the strain of supplying a larger force than about four hundred thousand made it almost impracticable to depend upon operations of a greater magnitude.

The best authorities agreed that the light rails of the Siberian railroad could never stand the wear and tear of transporting 400,000 troops and the supplies and equipment for such a force that might be required in operations of six months or a year. Many travelers say that only thirty-pound rails were used on the older portion of the road. A thirty-pound rail is as light as the ordinary street car rail.

Where the Japanese had the advantage of the Russians was in field artillery, but this was more than offset by the Russian cavalry. The

200,000 regular Japanese had 19 six-battery regiments and field and mountain artillery organized into 114 batteries mounting 684 guns.

Russian Soldiers Available for Service.

A careful estimate of the organization of the First and Second Siberian Corps showed about 147,000 Russians when the corps were organized on a war footing. There should be added to this number the cavalry force, estimated in the official publication of the French General Staff at about 22,930 Cossacks with 19,300 horses.

This organization, according to the French General Staff, was in the districts of Siberia, Semirechensk, Transbaikalia, the Amur and Ussuri and was about 14.7 per cent of the population available for Cossack service.

The Russian cavalry was a factor of more than usual importance, and army officers said it would accomplish great things before the war was over.

Two new rifle brigades were also created, and the British Army and Navy Gazette figured a total of about 300,000 Russians available for service in Manchuria. But with the two Siberian corps of about 147,000 men, there were only 286 guns, which gave the Japanese a decided artillery advantage.

CHAPTER XXIII.

AMERICAN NONCOMBATANTS

American Nurses Offer their Services to Japan—The First Expedition—What the Offer Meant to Japan—The Japanese Red Cross Society—United States Officers Study the War—Uniforms Required—Absence of Swords—Military Etiquette.

THE women of the United States were the first to furnish trained nurses for the war between Russia and Japan. Even before war was declared several American women offered their services to Japan as army nurses. On March 7th, Dr. Anita Newcomb McGee, of Washington, started across the Pacific for Japan with a party of nine other women.

Nurses Study the Language.

Upon deciding to make the venture in the interest of humanity these brave women began the study of the Japanese language. They engaged a teacher in the tongue of that country and retained his services throughout the voyage. The names of the first expedition of American trained nurses were as follows: Dr. Anita Newcomb McGee, Miss Barbara Wiedman, who was operating nurse in the ship Relief in the Philippines; Miss Mary E. Gladwin, of Boston, a woman of valuable experience who was chief nurse at the Sternberg Hospital at Chicamauga during the Spanish war; Miss Annie Robbins, who was the chief nurse of the 7th Army Corps and served for a long time in the Philippines; Miss Sarah Welpton, of St. Louis, who was in the army from the beginning of the Spanish war until recently; Mrs. K. W. Eastman, of New York; Miss Elizabeth Stack, of Brooklyn, who was engaged in teaching the hospital corps at Washington Barracks; Miss Emma Kennedy, who was with the Seventh Army Corps during the Spanish war. She saw service in Cuba and the Philippines and at the Army Tuberculosis Hospital at Fort Bayard, New Mexico; Miss Sophia E. Newell, of Jersey City, and

Miss Alice Kemmer, of Sweetzer, Indiana, who attained considerable fame for her work in the Philippines and in the allied campaign in China of 1900.

Formal Offer to Japan.

It will be remembered that the Americans were the only women nurses in China during the war. The Sisters of the Russian Church were at Taku but that was the nearest any but the American women got to the marching armies. Dr. McGee, at the head of this band of women who engaged in this practical work of humanity, was President of the Spanish-American war nurses. In the autumn of 1903, when war between Russia and Japan seemed to be approaching, she took unofficial and finally formal steps toward the participation of the Spanish-American war nurses in the work of the war in the Far East, by sending the following letter to his excellency, Kogoro Takahira, the Japanese Minister to the United States:

To His Excellency,
The Minister from Japan,
Washington, D. C.

Sir:

Through your Excellency I have the honor to offer to your government, if war should be declared, the services of a party of American ex-army nurses to assist in nursing the sick and wounded of the Japanese army. The party would consist exclusively of women who have graduated from our well equipped training schools for nurses, requiring two or three years residence and work in a hospital, and who have also had large experience in their profession since graduation. A part of their experience was gained by regular service in the army of the United States, during the Spanish war and the Philippines and Chinese campaigns; so that they are familiar with camp life and accustomed to army discipline.

Approximately two thousand were appointed to our army during the ten years when the Nurse Corps in my charge (under immediate direction of Surgeon-General Sternberg), and six hundred of those who

served in 1898 belong to the Association of Spanish-American nurses, which was organized over three years ago, and of which I have the honor to be President. The number to constitute the proposed party will, of course, depend upon your wishes and the amount of contributions to be received from the American people. Each nurse would be pledged to remain at least six months, if needed so long. I take the liberty of suggesting that I could start almost immediately after a declaration of war, taking with me a few nurses with the highest degree of surgical skill, and that additional nurses could be cabled for if the need arose.

I presume you would desire to furnish quarters and rations from the time of arrival in Japan.

With the earnest hope that this expression of friendship from the people of the United States will meet with the approval and sanction of your government, I have the honor to be, with high consideration, your obedient servant.

(Signed) Anita Newcomb McGee,

President Society Spanish-American War Nurses (1898 to 1901, Acting Ass't Surgeon of the United States Army in Charge of Army Nurse Corps).

The Japanese Minister's Reply.

The Japanese Minister replied:

"I am deeply impressed by your offer to my government of the services of the ex-army nurses now belonging to the association under your presidency, in case they should be needed by the Japanese army. I can assure you that the friendship and sympathy on the part of the American ladies who devote their efforts to the noble objects of your association of which your letter is so graceful in evidence, will be widely and cordially recognized in Japan, and to that end I will take pleasure in communicating it to my government at the earliest opportunity."

Dr. McGee's letter, offering the co-operation of the American women made an excellent impression in Japan, it is said. The news of Dr. McGee's intention were, of course, cabled to Japan and printed in the newspapers there. But war had not at that time been decided upon.

Of course, Japan could not accept any such offer until after the declaration, which occurred on Feb. 11. The offer was later accepted by Mr. Takahira in the following letter:

The Japanese Government Accepts.

"In reference to your offer of services of a party of American ex-army nurses to assist in nursing the sick and wounded of the Japanese army, I have now received a telegram from the Minister for Foreign Affairs, informing me that the Red Cross Society of Japan is prepared to accept their services with full appreciation of the high motives which animated you to make this offer. In doing so, however, I am asked to say the Society wishes to suggest that you would come over to Japan with a few nurses, as you proposed, leaving the others to be cabled for if the actual necessity should call for such a step, as, in the opinion of the Society, it is still uncertain that such an occasion will present itself."

Not Equipped for War.

An unprofessional person not familiar with the conditions in Japan can hardly realize how much this offer of assistance meant to the army of the Island Kingdom. While Japan was well enough equipped with nurses for peace times, neither she nor, with the possible exception of Great Britain and the United States, any other country is adequately prepared in time of war. Our own experiences in the Spanish-American war gave us some notion of what would very soon be the plight of Japan. Dr. McGee estimated that there were living in this country 25,000 graduated nurses, and yet there were not enough available to supply the needs of the American Navy in the Spanish war. About 1,500 nurses worked with the army in 1898 under the direction of Dr. McGee, who from that year until 1901 was an Acting-Assistant-Surgeon in the United States Army in charge of the army nurse corps. Fully a thousand more nurses could have been employed to a great advantage. These nurses were available for service; but the officers and men were gradually returning to their homes on furlough, afflicted with sickness or wounds, and the nurses were employed to assist in bringing them

back to health and strength. So it is that in war times the demands upon this profession in the combating countries are pretty sure to be much greater than the supply.

The Red Cross Organization.

The Mikado has an immense Red Cross organization, with a membership of 800,000 and over $2,000,000 to work with. This organization is under the direct patronage of the Emperor and the Empress, and is, no doubt, a very powerful and effective society. But it appears that the Japanese Red Cross was not in a position to do all that should be required of such a body in an emergency like the war with Russia. Its principal duty was to collect money and supplies for relief work and to give instruction in the first stage to men who served the army in the field. But army officers know that women nurses are well nigh indispensable, and of these the Japanese Red Cross had not a sufficient number. It is true that there was a hospital at Tokio maintained by the Society, and several hundred nurses have been graduated there, among them being young ladies of high position. But this provision, though sufficient in time of peace, is likely to prove sadly inadequate in war times.

The Tented Field Had No Terrors.

Moreover—and this is doubtless the most important consideration—Japanese women nurses had never been sent outside of their own country, and were utterly devoid of experience on the field of battle. The armed camp, on the other hand, had no terrors for any of the women who went from this country for Japan. These American nurses knew what it meant to live in a tent, without the conveniences of a peaceful home, and to work for thirty-six continuous hours if necessary, and to aid in surgical operations. This is the kind of work they did in the Spanish war, and they were able to show their Japanese sisters many things which those slant and almond-eyed nurses did not thoroughly understand.

The Japanese Red Cross Society is under military control, so the American nurses received orders from Japanese officers. The American

party first proceeded to Osaka, the greatest industrial city of Japan, located on that fairy land's famous inland sea. Osaka was the military medical base. The Emperor had established headquarters at the ancient capital at Kioto, about two hours by rail from Osaka, and the American women were able to be on hand to report for duty wherever they were needed.

United States Officers Study the War.

In the Orient our government established at the opening of hostilities a vast war laboratory, and fourteen Yankee officers—the largest delegation ever dispatched by us on such a mission—were detailed to study the bloody science of killing.

Eight of these—six military and two naval experts—studied the conflict from the Russian side, while six—five from the army and one from the navy—observed the struggle within the Japanese lines. On the Russian side we were represented by one brigadier-general, one colonel and five captains, of the army; one lieutenant-commander and one lieutenant of the navy. With the plucky Japs we had one colonel, one major and three captains of our land forces and one lieutenant-commander of our fleet. All branches of our army—artillery, cavalry, infantry and engineers—were represented within the battle lines of the Slavs; all except cavalry on the side of the Japanese. A member of our general staff was with each army. Five of these military observers were detailed from Manila; two from this country. Three had already arrived at the seat of war when the first gun was fired at Port Arthur.

Lessons of Value.

Our War and Navy Departments realized many months before the war began that a bloody conflict in the Orient was inevitable and that lessons of inestimable value to the United States were to be learned from it. These fourteen Yankee war observers were selected with great care. They were all men of surpassing courage and perspicuity. They kept their ears and eyes wide open, but at the same time carefully observed the delicate formulas of international law governing men of their status.

They were entertained as the official guests of the respective belligerents to whom accredited. They waded into the gore of battle and divided their time between the headquarters of the highest royal personages in the theater of war and those of the commanders-in-chief. They enjoyed the protection accorded always to non-combatants. Any deliberate attempts against their lives or safety, on the part of either the Russians or Japanese, would have been resented by our government as a serious insult. Such an act might have led to a bloody war between the United States and the offending government.

Took Preliminary Tour.

Our observer of highest rank on the Russian side was Brigadier-General Henry T. Allen, chief of the Philippine constabulary. Foreseeing the approach of the conflict, he obtained leave of absence from Manila and, at his own expense, made a long tour of study through Korea and Manchuria. Inasmuch as he was for several years our military attaché at the court of the Czar, he was well known to the Russian officers and was at home among them. Colonel John B. Kerr, who represented our general staff on the Russian side, was a cavalry officer and a native of Kentucky. He went from Manila to join the Russians, as did Captain Carl Reichman, of the Seventeenth Infantry, and Captain George G. Gatley, of the Artillery Corps. Captain Reichman was a German who enlisted in our army as a private in 1881 and worked his way up through the ranks, gaining a commission in three years of service. He was captain and assistant adjutant-general of volunteers during the Spanish-American war and captain of the regular army since that struggle. Captain Gatley was a native of Maine and a West Pointer. He left the Seventeenth Field Artillery in the Philippines to join the Czar's army. The other two military observers on the Russian side were Captain William V. Judson, a Hoosier and a West Pointer who was lately attached to the office of the chief engineer at Washington, and Captain Andre W. Brewster, a Jerseyman commissioned from civilian life in 1885. Captain Brewster was our military attaché at Peking, China, where he was doing duty when the present war opened.

Our ranking observer on the Japanese side was Colonel E. H. Crowder, the general staff's authority on military law. He had previously been attached to the War Department as assistant judge-advocate-general. He was a Missourian, a West Pointer and an ex-cavalry officer. Major Oliver E. Wood, who observed the struggle from the standpoint of the Mikado's army, was our military attaché at Seoul and Tokio, at which latter capital he was serving when hostilities commenced. A Connecticut Yankee, who enlisted in the Union army as a private in '62, he won a cadetship at West Point a year later and was a major in the Artillery Corps when accredited to Seoul and Tokio. The three other army officers detailed on the Japanese side were Captain J. F. Morrison, Twentieth Infantry; Captain J. E. Kuhn, Engineer Corps, both of whom departed from Manila, and Captain Frederick Marsh, Artillery Corps, who had been stationed at Fort Strong, Massachusetts. These three captains were West Pointers and men of thorough technical training.

Our Intelligence Bureaus.

In Washington there is maintained under the War Department a bureau of military intelligence, corresponding to the bureau of the French army to which the martyred Dreyfus was attached. The head of this office, at the time of the Russo-Japanese war, was Major W. D. Beach, Tenth Cavalry, a member of the new general staff. To him all of our military observers in the Orient reported such data as they gathered at the seat of war, the modus operandi being the same as in the case of our regularly accredited military attachés at the great European courts.

Under the Navy Department there is a similar bureau, in charge of Captain Seaton Schroeder, U. S. N., to whom our three naval observers accredited to the belligerent powers reported. Lieutenant-Commander C. C. Marsh, our naval attaché at Peking and Tokio, studied the war from the Japanese fleet, while Lieutenant N. A. McCully, late of the United States dispatch boat Dolphin, was attached to the Russian fleet. Lieutenant-Commander R. C. Smith, our naval attaché at Paris

and St. Petersburg, studied the mobilization of the Russian army on the European side, and accompanied troops across the trans-Siberian Railway.

All of these observers ranked as special military and naval attachés. They wore their fatigue uniforms and were required to leave off their swords, as a sign that they were non-combatants. The military observers were lent horses by the Russian and Japanese commanders to whose armies they were accredited. They moved in the fields as members of these commanders' staffs, messed with them and occupied the same quarters. Technically, they were the guests of the Czar and Mikado, who detailed the military and naval commanders to entertain them.

In a Delicate Position.

For any of these observers to act the part of spy would be a breach of military etiquette, than which none could possibly be more serious. It cannot be predicted what punishment would be meted out to them, but if found prying into secrets such as all fighting nations hold sacred —such as plans of fortifications—they would immediately become persona non grata, and their recall from the field would speedily follow. While viewing battles, and casually conversing with their hosts, they could not give advice of a military nature without transgressing the tenets of international law, and committing a breach of neutrality.

In the Russo-Japanese war science played a heavier role than had ever been before attempted in any battle drama. Both belligerents were suspected at the beginning of having, somewhere hidden away, surprises terrible and bloody, to be sprung at the opportune moment. Our military and naval observers were detailed for the express purpose of acquainting their respective intelligence bureaus in Washington with the newest scientific, administrative and technical developments of the war. They noted all novelties in small arms, ordnance, gun-sighting, uniforms, tents, accoutrements, war balloons, field telegraph devices, signals, steering gear for ships, turrets, searchlights, torpedoes, submarine boats and what not. They reported these to Washington. It was, of course, understood that all of these data were to be gathered

in an open and legitimate manner. No American military or naval attaché was ever accused of corrupting foreign officials for the purpose of securing government secrets.

Not Diplomats.

These special military and naval attachés, like the regular attachés accredited abroad in time of peace, were technically attached to the mission of our Ambassador to Russia or Minister to Japan, according to which army or fleet they would study. But neither Ambassador McCormick nor Minister Griscom were responsible for them as they would have been for ordinary diplomatic attachés forming a part of their suites. They were detailed not by the Secretary of State, but the Secretary of War or Navy, and they received their instructions directly from these departments. They were attached to the embassy at St. Petersburg or legation at Tokio only that they might be endowed with the extra-territorial and diplomatic immunities and prerogatives extended to the staffs of all diplomatic missions abroad. They ranked with the first secretaries, whereas diplomatic attachés are in a grade below the most subordinate secretaries.

Noted Military Attachés.

American officers have been detailed to study all great foreign wars of the past century. Scott viewed the occupation of Paris by the allied troops and accompanied the Duke of Wellington during their review. McClellan and two other officers accompanied the allied armies at the siege of Sebastopol. Sheridan and Forsyth studied the Franco-German war from the German side. Our Minister to Paris endeavored to gain permission for Sheridan to view the French side, but the request was refused by the French Minister of War. It became known later, however, that Sheridan had picked the Germans as the winners from the start, and that he never had intended joining the French. During the Russo-Turkish war Francis V. Greene (late police commissioner of New York) was our attaché with the Russian army, Colonel Chambers observing on the Turkish side, while General Hazen was dispatched

to Constantinople to be ready to accompany the Austrians in the event that they took a hand in the struggle.

Prince Napoleon was the guest of the Army of the Potomac during our Civil War; Lord Wolseley, ex-commander-in-chief of the British army, traveled with both the Union and Confederate forces.

Military attachés have unusual opportunities for developing the friendship of foreign rulers. Sheridan was the special guest of the King of Prussia and became an intimate friend of Bismarck, sometimes sleeping in the same room with the latter. General Miles hobnobbed with practically all of the crowned heads of the Old World during his long tour of inspection following the Graeco-Turkish war. More recently, Commander William H. Beehler, our naval attaché at Berlin, became a chum of Emperor William, who familiarly addressed the commander as "Bill" and affectionately rested the imperial arm on his shoulder on several public occasions. Commander Beehler breakfasted, lunched and dined with the Emperor twenty-seven times in two years. Just what William tried to learn from "Bill" has never yet been fathomed. But what Bill divulged to William was nothing worth knowing, and he left Berlin with the confidence of his superiors in Washington. He kept his head in spite of royal flattery, wherefore he "ought to have a tablet in the hall of fame."

CHAPTER XXIV.

INITIAL STAGES OF THE WAR

Anarchy in China Feared—Secretary Hay's Note—Severance of Diplomatic Relations between Japan and Russia—The Daring Torpedo Attack on Port Arthur—Japanese Success Establishes Chinese Influence—Naval Conflict at Chemulpo—First Prizes of the War—Arrival of Japanese Troops at Seoul—Repulse of Japanese Landing Party—Destruction of the Boyarin.

THE Chinese Minister in Washington, Sir Chen Tung Liang-Cheng, was as deeply concerned at the beginning of hostilities between Japan and Russia as was either the Japanese Minister, Mr. Takahira, or Count Cassini, the Russian Ambassador. The Chinese diplomatic officer in the United States feared that the war would cause a recurrence of the unrest that preceded the Boxer uprising of 1900. There is a large element of the Chinese which does not appreciate the difference between nationalities, and are disposed to look with equal hatred upon a Russian soldier or an American or English missionary, regarding all foreigners in China as her foes.

Plans for China's Protection.

His Excellency, the Chinese Minister, feared that the Empress Dowager and the entire Chinese Court would take flight and leave the Imperial Palace, at Pekin, as they did on August 14, 1900. With the court away from Pekin, China would be practically in a state of anarchy. Such a state of affairs would completely demoralize the whole of the Chinese populace—such a condition, with no government head at Pekin, would close every door of communication with the powers. The United States, and several of the European governments, were extremely anxious that this menace to foreigners in China be averted and brought every pressure to bear, that they possibly could, to prevent the Empress Dowager, the Emperor and the court from leaving Pekin.

These timid and easily frightened rulers were given assurances that they would have every protection, but naturally Orientals, particularly the Chinese, are very suspicious of foreigners and their devices. When we consider how they have been trifled with, by several European governments, this is not to be wondered at.

Secretary Hay's note to the powers was intended to bring about a concert so that the Pekin government would not be left without a head. One of the objects of that note was to induce the Empress Dowager to abandon her flight to the interior provinces of the empire.

Flight of the Empress Prevented.

Only those who have been in China can appreciate the serious results which may follow the flight of the Empress Dowager from the capital in time of war. War is the signal, and the opportunity, for disturbances in various parts of China which always endanger the lives and property of the missionaries and other foreign residents. For this reason, there was an earnest desire on the part of the neutral powers to prevent this contingency. Some, it is said, were inclined to go so far as to guarantee the integrity of China, but the difficulty lay in the close relations of the European powers, either with Russia or Japan. No doubt the neutral European governments were pleased when the United States took the initiative, as expressed in the Hay note. A guarantee of neutrality of China was considered, at that time, a step in the direction of preserving the integrity of China. The powers, with one exception, adopted the policy as suggested by Secretary Hay.

It is known that the President of the United States and his cabinet were several days considering the proposition of this government, as sent out to the powers by Secretary Hay, in all its bearings, as an aid to helpless China. Minister Conger, our diplomatic officer at Pekin, was of great assistance in satisfying the Chinese government that the court would be perfectly safe in Pekin. This, it is said, had the effect of quieting the Empress Dowager and her court and they decided not to flee from Pekin for the time being.

While the diplomatic relations between Japan and Russia were, to

all intents and purposes, cut off on Feb. 5th, the Japanese Minister to St. Petersburg, Mr. Kurino, and Baron Rosen, the Russian Minister to Japan, did not actually take their leave until the 7th. This made the severance of diplomatic relations complete.

Attitude of the United States.

The diplomatic affairs of Japan in Russia and the interests of the Mikado's subjects there were turned over to United States Ambassador McCormick, at St. Petersburg. The attitude of the United States in this war was to observe complete neutrality and this policy was declared at the beginning of hostilities at Chemulpo and Port Arthur.

After careful consideration, the United States Navy Department decided that it would make no effort to place naval attaches on either the Russian or Japanese fleets. There was not the least doubt on the part of Admiral Dewey but that the consent of both Russia and Japan could be obtained to send our naval observers with their fighting ships. Even though both governments refused this courtesy to our navy, the United States Government would have had no grounds for complaint. It will be remembered that Uncle Sam would not permit the attaches of foreign navies to accompany our warships during the Spanish war.

Russian Fleet Taken by Surprise.

On Feb. 9th and 10th the press dispatches brought sensational news regarding the attack of the Japanese torpedo boats upon the Russian naval fleet anchored in the roads just outside the entrance of Port Arthur harbor. The attack was made by the swift Japanese torpedo boats during the dark night of Monday, Feb. 8th. They fairly hugged the coast as they approached the entrance and when in close range of that part of the fleet anchored just outside the entrance to the harbor the Japs discharged several torpedoes toward their enemy's fleet. Several men-of-war, including the Cesarevitch, Retvizan and Pallada, were disabled. The crippled fighting ships of the Czar limped toward Port Arthur and almost at its very entrance were beached.

Influence of the Japanese Victory.

This was a staggering blow to proud and powerful Russia. The news of the daring feat of the fearless Japs amazed the world. The dispatches descriptive of this attack were at first fragmentary and unsatisfactory to the outside world. But each day the intelligence kept coming over the cables which verified what was bad news to Russia and her friends and good news for the Japanese and their admirers. In every remote corner of the globe where newspapers are published, in English, French, German, Italian, Portuguese, Russian, Swedish, Danish, Japanese and Chinese, the reports of this opening battle of the war was printed. The influence this news had upon the Chinese, in further cementing the friendship that had begun in 1900 for their former enemy, the Japanese, can not be overestimated.

Russia had used the opportunity for her encroachments upon China, by making that country fear her. There is no doubt but that the Chinese rejoiced when they learned that the Japanese had punished Russia so severely in the first conflict of the war. If it is true that nothing "succeeds like success," as we look at things in America, then it is more than true that success and victory has a still greater influence over the Chinese. The Chinese, like ourselves, desire to be on the winning side. It is not at all unlikely that the slant eyed Orientals possess that characteristic in a still higher degree than Americans. It can be easily understood then what an influence Japan's victory at Port Arthur had in establishing Chinese influence at the initial battle of the war.

The First Attack on Port Arthur.

The following is a translation of a letter from the wife of a Russian naval officer stationed at Port Arthur:

"At eleven o'clock on the morning of February 8 my husband came to me in great excitement saying I should pack up as quickly as possible as he had heard that our local banker, G., was despatching on his own steamer the families of his employés and had offered me a passage by the same steamer. The boat, however, was to start in three hours

time, and as I had many arrangements to make for my little son it was clearly impossible that I could avail myself of his kind offer.

Under Orders to Leave.

"Therefore we decided that I should start for St. Petersburg by the express on the next evening. On going to the bureau for my tickets they refused to issue them, but booked my name for a seat. I was much hurried as my husband had to be on board his ship by five p. m., his ship being under orders for some expected night operations. For several days communication with the shore had been stopped after eight p. m., by which time both officers and men of the fleet were ordered to be on board. This was my final good-bye to my husband as the next morning the squadron was under orders to start for a cruise, though for how long was not known.

Packing Up.

"Whilst engaged in packing two of my military acquaintances passed by much excited; they told me that a decisive reply was expected hourly. That the prevailing state of uncertainty was likely soon to come to an end gave us all great relief, and I bade them my adieus with all good wishes for their advancement and success. My husband's servant came to tell me that the Chinese were leaving the markets and flying in all directions; the Japanese likewise were hastily closing their shops and hurrying on board the steamers. I then returned to my packing, though it did not progress very quickly; indeed, the sight of so many valuable things scattered in all directions brought the tears to my eyes. Around me lay exquisite things of every description—silks, laces, curios, down to small models of the ships of my husband's squadron, and the thousand and one articles with which a sailor's wife in the Far East surrounds herself. Where to bestow them all I scarcely knew. An oppressive silence pervaded the atmosphere; the servants had all retired to rest. I was alone.

The Sound of Guns.

"Suddenly there broke on my ear the sound of volley-firing at intervals. It passed through my mind that these sounds came from the

docks, where they were working by night. Such, however, was not the case; there was incessant volleys, followed by the dull roar of heavy guns from the fortress which made the very room shake. I roused the servants, bidding them fetch C. He appeared almost immediately with the news that an engagement was taking place, the Japanese having actually attacked. I went out on to the balcony, and there the whole town seemed illuminated—now here, now there—by searchlights. The town itself was but little disturbed save for a small crowd which had collected outside the residence of the viceroy. I was panic-stricken; I went inside and tried to finish my packing. I could not; the very things slipped from my fingers. What mattered my belongings when a fight for life or death was raging close at hand? Enough that I could save my child. Thus I passed that dreadful night, but morning brought no relief, only the realization of our worst fears. Our great ships, the Cesarevitch, the Retvisan and the Pallada, had all been damaged.

The Damaged Battleships.

"I next heard that the time of departure of the express had been altered and that I must start at eleven a. m., and soon after we set out for the station. The town was comparatively quiet, but on the lips of all trembled the words, 'the Cesarevitch,' 'the Retvisan,' and again, 'the Cesarevitch.' The huge battleship loomed on the horizon at the entrance to the harbor. Suddenly the news spread that the Japanese squadron had been sighted and were making for Port Arthur. As I left our ships were weighing anchor and a battle seemed imminent. With some little difficulty we made our way to the station, where the greatest confusion existed. The platform was literally strewn with baggage of every description. I was lucky enough owing to the kindness of Mr. C. to obtain a ticket, and with the rest of the crowd I pushed and elbowed my way to the train. Here again I fortunately secured a seat, the train moved off and it was good-bye to Port Arthur and to our husbands, who at that very moment were awaiting the Japanese attack. That God might preserve them was the prayer in every heart. When we reached our first stopping place we could hear the sound of volleys,

and the express which overtook us later on brought the news that the Japanese attack had lasted forty minutes. We also learnt that not much damage had been done to the Cesarevitch and that both the other ships would shortly be fit for service again. Our journey was very tedious; the train dragged slowly along, stopping incessantly at small stations. All along the line the same confusion as at Port Arthur prevailed, and I had the greatest difficulty in getting even the bare necessaries of life for my little child and myself; sometimes even a little bread was unprocurable.

On the Road to Russia.

"On our arrival at Manchuria station all our baggage had to be examined. Here the custom-house officials treated us with great civility, in marked contrast to the railway officials. After a long wait at the station they opened the doors of the wagons and we crowded in quickly, sharing the cramped accommodation with the poor children, many of whom were crying from exhaustion. A police official then appeared and roughly ordered us to get out as the signal to enter the carriages had not been given. We protested, and after fierce altercation on either side we remained where we were.

On Lake Baikal.

"On our arrival at Baikal the weather luckily became rather less severe, there being no wind, which is the one thing to be dreaded as the cold there is almost unbearable. As we crossed over we passed numberless sledges packed with soldiers, whilst many were proceeding on foot wrapped up in their warm coats. On reaching the other side of the lake there was a long delay, our baggage being again examined. We arrived at Irkutsk at two o'clock in the morning and there found we had a wait of several hours. Never shall I forget the scene which here presented itself. The platform was so crowded with people and their baggage that there was no place for even the children to lie down. I spread out my coat on the floor of the platform intending to lay my little son down but found it impossible; there was only standing room. The little ones were dropping from fatigue and many wept bitterly.

We gave up the idea of continuing our journey by the first train and decided to book our tickets by the express, and sought shelter in an inn until the morning. We passed some few hours in Irkutsk, which seemed a pleasant town and not so cold as we expected. We caught the express the same afternoon, and the remainder of our journey presented no difficulties. Of course we did not travel as fast as is usual owing to the numbers of troop and goods trains filled with every kind of war material which were to be met with at nearly every station and siding. The soldiers seemed in great spirits, singing and jesting; all seemed fully confident of success and somewhat contemptuous of their little adversaries. Our journey was completed without further incident, and we reached St. Petersburg nineteen days after our departure from Port Arthur."

Difficulty in Getting News.

Closely following the news of the Japanese naval victory at Port Arthur came the reports of a naval conflict at Chemulpo, Korea. It probably will always be a question as to which battle occurred first. The Russians held that the war began at Port Arthur, while the Japanese claimed that the first shot was fired at Chemulpo. The difficulties of news gathering in the Far East are not well understood in our country, where we have every facility for obtaining and disseminating the news for each day, so that the important events are known to the people within a few hours after they happen. The conditions in the Orient are different. It requires time to get across the waters to a cable line. After the cable is reached, there is the censor to be reckoned with and the message is involved in red tape, so that it requires a great deal of time to arrange the preliminaries for filing a news dispatch. After the dispatch is filed there are apt to be delays at other points.

The Battle of Chemulpo.

The facts, however, regarding the battle of Chemulpo are as follows: On the 8th of February, two Russian men-of-war, the Korietz and Variag were lying at Chemulpo. On the afternoon of that day the

Korietz left Chemulpo for Port Arthur with the mails, but meeting a Japanese fleet convoying transports, and having three torpedoes fired at her, she returned to Chemulpo. The Japanese admiral claimed that the first shot was fired by the Russian ship, whereupon he ordered a torpedo attack. On the following morning the senior Russian commander received a letter from the Japanese admiral saying that unless the two ships left the port before twelve o'clock on that day the Japanese ships would go into the harbor and attack them.

A Forlorn Hope.

The Russians, having no alternative, left the harbor shortly before noon, well knowing that they were going to certain destruction. The crews of the foreign ships in the harbor, Talbot (English), Vicksburg (American), Pascal (French), and Elba (Italian) loudly cheered the Russian sailors as the latter left, for the courage displayed. Outside the harbor were fifteen ships of the Japanese fleet. These opened fire at long range. The Variag remained for a time unhit, but getting aground on a sand bank she was terribly punished. The Captain finding all hope of escape gone, determined to try to return to the harbor. The Variag, leaking very badly from holes on her water-line, just managed to reach her original anchorage, when she heeled over and sank. Just about this time the Korietz blew up, having been set on fire by her crew to save her from falling into the hands of the Japanese. The crews of both ships were rescued by the boats of the foreign men-of-war. After his ship was disabled the captain of the Variag ordered his officers and crew to jump overboard and save themselves if they could, and then blew up the ship.

Scores of Russians Killed.

About 200 men were killed and wounded. Many were drowned in the attempt to escape, a great number swam, not to the shore, but to the foreign men-of-war in the harbor, which promptly lowered boats and went to their rescue. About 150 reached the Talbot. Sir Cyprian Bridge, the British admiral in command of the station, ordered that the

wounded Russians should not be handed over to the Japanese unless they so desired.

No Japanese Loss.

The Japanese did not lose a man. None of the fleet, which in overwhelming force, was damaged. The Russian steamer Sungari was also destroyed and sunk. Both war ships tried to escape from the port before dawn but eventually put back. The Korietz accepted the Japanese challenge and alone went out to fight the whole fleet. She was completely outmatched; the Japanese broadsides raked her continually until she sank. Many of her crew were killed by shells or drowned, and the few who escaped to shore were captured.

Prophetic Words.

The captain of the Korietz, writing to a relative shortly before the battle, used these prophetic words: "I am ready to go to sea at any minute. From day to day we have been expecting a fight with the Japanese. We expect sudden attacks without a previous declaration of war. The wooden fittings are being taken ashore. We have no armor; our strength is only in the guns and the courage of our men. We Russians often depend on courage, and the outcome is all right. It may happen that it will not fail us now. I shall do all possible. If they send us to the bottom say a good word for us."

A Royal Welcome.

Upon their return to St. Petersburg the entire city turned out to do honor to the survivors of the warships Variag and Korietz. A crowd of 100,000 persons gathered at the railway station when the sailors arrived. After being greeted by Grand Duke Alexis and a brilliant staff of admirals, the heroes were escorted to the Winter Palace, where they were received by the czar. The reception was in the magnificent Nicholas Hall, which had been converted into a church. A special Te Deum was sung and then all the sailors remained for a banquet as the emperor's guests.

The bluejackets, seated at the imperial table and waited on by the

imperial servants, were overcome by the splendor of the feast. The emperor, escorting both the empresses, approached the sailors and said: "I am happy, brothers, to see you all here safely returned. Many of you have inscribed with your blood a record of heroic deeds in our annals. You have made the names of the Variag and Korietz immortal. I am sure you will remain worthy to the last of the crosses which have been bestowed on you. All Russia and I have been moved by the recital of your exploits at Chemulpo. I thank you, brothers, for vindicating the honor of the flag of St. Andrew and the renown of holy Russia. I drink to the further victories of our glorious fleet and to your health, brothers."

The emperor took a goblet of wine and drained it and all present followed his example with a thunderous shout of "Hurrah!" The emperor then went round the table exchanging greetings with his lowly guests.

First Prizes of the War.

The first prizes of the war were taken by Japan. They consisted of the capture of one steamer of the Russian volunteer fleet, the Ekaterinoslav, and the steamer Argun belonging to the Trans-Siberian Railway Company. On Feb. 10, the Japanese captured four Russian whalers, the Glorige, Nicelai, Alexander, and Michael. On the same day, one of the principal railway bridges, over which the Manchurian Railway passes, was blown up by a Japanese spy. It is said that the Japanese had made every preparation for the destruction of the Manchurian Railway, by placing Japanese all along the railway line dressed as Chinese coolies. Disguised in this manner they sought work with the railway company and were in a position to strike blows for the destruction of the railway, thus delaying the recruiting of the Russian army.

Japanese Arrive at Seoul.

On February 11, the dispatches announced that the Japanese troops had arrived at Seoul, the capital of Korea, and that their influence and power predominated there. Along with this war news came reports that the Russians were massacring innocent Chinese in different sec-

tions of Manchuria and looting at Vladivostok. On account of the massacre of 100 Chinese at Liaoyang, the Chinese officials at Shan-Hai-Kwan became alarmed, lest there might be a general uprising among the Chinese, caused by this practical state of anarchy.

They made frequent appeals to the Chinese Government at Pekin for protection, but of course China, as usual, was unable to give her subjects the protection they asked for and needed. This state of affairs tended to keep the Empress Dowager in a state of unrest and alarm and it required the combined efforts of the American Minister, the Ambassador from England and the other foreign diplomats there to keep the court from taking flight to the interior.

Russian Officers at a Circus.

One of the most surprising things to the outside world in connection with the Japanese attack upon the Russian warships at Port Arthur, was the announcement which was made to appear as an excuse for the Russians, that they were attending a circus at Port Arthur when the attack upon their fleet took place. The circus, it is said, began on Monday night and did not terminate until early Tuesday morning. It seems remarkable that naval officers and men would be off duty when they well knew that a state of war had existed between their country and Japan for three days, at least.

On Sunday, Feb. 14, it was announced that the Japanese had attempted to land forces near Port Arthur and were repulsed, several hundred of them being sabered by Cossacks. The Japanese followed this up with an attempt to land 12,000 troops at Dove Bay. On the following day the news reached this country that the Japanese had blown up the Russian cruiser Boyarin and that her entire crew were lost.

Russian Festivities Abandoned.

On February 15, the carnival week began, usually the gayest of the year in Russia, but, under the shadow of the war, the merry-making amounted to only an imitation of that of former years. In St. Petersburg all the festivities, including balls, public and private social functions and fashionable weddings, planned months in advance, were abandoned.

Everybody in Russia was thinking of the war and the future of the Empire. The rush of the crowds to buy extra editions of the newspapers, the intense activity at the War and Marine Ministries and the crowds about the Admiralty, anxiously inquiring about the fate of relatives, were grim reminders of what the thoughts of the unhappy people were.

Instead of the customary festivities, the theatres gave double performances for the benefit of the Red Cross, and the Artist's Ball, one of the biggest events of the social season, which it was intended to abandon, was held in a hall decorated to represent the feast day of Benares, the artists being attired in the costumes of the Hindoos.

Gloom in Russia and Joy in Japan.

The gloom that was cast over the people of Russia at the beginning of hostilities with Japan, was in striking contrast to the high spirits and pride of the Japanese at the victories they won in the beginning. Everywhere in the cities and villages of the Mikado's land his subjects were singing the patriotic airs of Nippon. The people on the streets and the country by-ways were congratulating each other over the victories of the first week of the war and the object lesson they presented to the outside world and the incentive furnished to all patriotic Japanese.

On February 17 it was learned that Japan had succeeded in concentrating a big army for a land attack on Russia in Korea and Manchuria. At the same time from an authoritative source came the report that Japan would send 250,000 troops into both countries and if necessary follow up this number with as many more. The serious reverses which befell the Russian fleet at Port Arthur led to the recall of its commander, Vice-Admiral Stark and the appointment of Admiral Makaroff, one of the most distinguished officers in the service of the Czar. This event was followed by the departure of General Kouropatkin to take command of the Russian army in the Far East. These two appointments had the result of shearing most of the powers from Viceroy Alexieff, who up to that time had practically been in command of the Russian land and sea forces. He tendered his resignation to the Czar but the latter refused to accept it.

CHAPTER XXV.

THE ATTACKS ON PORT ARTHUR

The Fourth Assault—Wireless Telegraphy Used by Japanese—Thrilling Torpedo Duel—Bottling up the Russian Fleet—The Japanese Send in Fire Ships—The Fifth Attack—Hirose, the Hero—Description of the Beleagured City—Vivid Account of the Bombardment by a Russian Officer.

NUMEROUS minor assaults on Port Arthur occurred during the month of February, but Admiral Togo's fourth attack on March 10 was the most effective since the first assault of a month before. One Russian torpedo boat destroyer was sunk and several seriously damaged. The fortifications and city were subjected to a heavy bombardment lasting nearly four hours. The naval bombardments of the land works were generally effective, yet the peculiar topographical conditions of Port Arthur were such that serious loss of life from sea attacks were seemingly impossible.

The Harbor Bombarded.

Admiral Togo's torpedo flotilla opened the action by boldly steaming in under the batteries and successfully placing a number of mechanical mines at the mouth of the harbor. Following that there was a desperate bow to bow encounter between the torpedo boat destroyers, in which the Japanese scored a clear victory. Then followed a long-range duel between the cruisers, ending in the retirement of the Novik and Bayan, the only Russians engaged.

The closing action was the bombardment of the inner harbor by the Japanese battleships. The latter took a position southwest of Port Arthur and used only their 12-inch guns. There were twenty-four 12-inch guns in the squadron of six battleships, and each gun fired five rounds, making a total of 120 huge projectiles that were fired at the city. The bombardment was deliberate and carefully planned.

In order to aid in perfecting the firing Admiral Togo stationed the cruisers in a position due east of the entrance to the harbor and at a right angle to the battleships. The cruisers observed the range and effect of the firing and signaled the results and suggestions by wireless telegraphy. These observations and reports greatly aided the gunners in their effort to make every shot count.

Admiral Togo was unable to learn definitely the results of the bombardment, but later private reports indicated that much destruction was caused in the city, where a series of fires broke out. There also was damage to batteries.

A Japanese Hero.

Captain Shokiro Asai, commanding the flotilla of torpedo boat destroyers which engaged the Russian destroyers, was the hero of the attack. He had only three destroyers, but attacked the six Russian destroyers, ordering his craft to close in with the enemy. He steamed so close to the enemy's destroyers that they almost touched, and a most desperate conflict ensued, from which the Russians retired badly disabled.

Engineer Minamisawa of the destroyer Kasumi received a small wound. Minamisawa participated in the first torpedo attack on Port Arthur, also in the attempt to bottle up the harbor by sinking commercial steamers. He was commended both times for his gallantry.

Object of the Attack.

The Japanese flotilla which sunk the mines at the mouth of the harbor later engaged two Russian destroyers. This flotilla was commanded by Commander Tsuchiya.

Admiral Togo's object in sending cruisers to Talienwan Bay was to encompass the destruction of a signal station mine depot at Samshantao. This object was achieved and the buildings were demolished.

Rear Admirals Dewa and Uriu participated in the operations under Admiral Togo, and when the details of the operations became known in Japan the news created intense enthusiasm.

Admiral Togo's Report.

Admiral Togo's report of the assault was as follows:

"Our squadron, as prearranged, attacked the enemy at Port Arthur on March 10. Our two torpedo flotillas reached the mouth of the harbor at Port Arthur at 1 o'clock on the morning of the 10th. Finding no enemy and waiting until dawn, one flotilla engaged in sinking special mines in the harbor entrance. Notwithstanding the enemy's fire our flotilla succeeded in sinking the mines. The other flotilla met the enemy's torpedo flotilla, consisting of six boats, in the Lao Thie Shan channel south of Port Arthur, at 4:30 o'clock. A hot engagement occurred at close range for thirty minutes. The enemy then took flight.

"Our fire greatly damaged the Russian ships, one of which was badly crippled by a shot through the boilers, and another was observed to be on fire. So close were the two flotillas to each other than our destroyers, the Asashio, Kasumi and Akatsuki, nearly touched the enemy's ships and our crews even could hear the cries of agony of the injured men on them.

Japanese Sustain Loss.

"We sustained some damage and loss. The Akatsuki had a steam pipe broken and four stokers were killed thereby. Our loss was seven killed and eight wounded. Among the latter is Chief Engineer Minamisawa of the Kasumi.

"Our other flotilla, while leaving the harbor entrance, observed two Russian torpedo boats coming from seaward and immediately engaged them, the battle lasting one hour. After causing them severe damage one of them effected its escape, but our destroyer, the Sasanami, captured the other boat, which proved to be the Stereguschtchi.

"Notwithstanding the land batteries pouring a heavy fire on our flotilla, the captured vessel was taken in tow. Owing to the high sea the tow line soon parted and the Sasanami found it necessary to take the crew from the Russian boat and abandoned the Stereguschtchi, which finally sank at 10:30 o'clock.

"The enemy's cruisers, the Novik and the Bayan, steamed out the

entrance of the harbor toward us, but, observing the approach of our cruiser squadron, retired to the harbor. Our flotilla suffered some damage, but not heavy. The Sasanami and the Akatsuki had two sailors killed and Sublieutenant Shima of the Akatsuki and three sailors were wounded.

"Our main and cruiser squadrons arrived off Port Arthur at 8 o'clock, and the cruisers immediately advanced toward the harbor entrance to protect the torpedo flotilla. The main squadron advanced near Lao-Thie-Shan and opened an indirect cannonade against the inner harbor from 10 o'clock to 1:40.

Bombardment is Effective.

"According to the observations made by one of our cruisers facing the entrance, the bombardment was remarkably effective. During our cannonade, the enemy's land batteries fired, but none of our ships suffered any damage.

"Another cruiser squadron went to Talienwan and bombarded the enemy's fortress on Samshantao, damaging the buildings there. The cruisers Takasago and Chihaya, reconnoitered the west coast of the Port Arthur peninsula, but did not find the enemy.

"The Russian torpedo boat destroyer, damaged in the third attack on Port Arthur, was found to be the Wnushiterinuy, which had been completely sunk, the mast only being visible above the water. Our squadron stopped fighting at 2 o'clock and returned to the rendezvous."

The official reports placed the Japanese loss at nine killed, five seriously wounded and seventeen slightly hurt. The Japanese fleet was not damaged in the fighting.

Viceroy Alexieff's Report.

The following is the Russian Viceroy's report of the engagement:

"Admiral Makaroff, commanding the fleet, reported from Port Arthur under date of March 10 as follows:

"'Six torpedo boats, which went out to sea the night of March 10, four of them being under the command of Captain Mattoussevitch, en-

countered the enemy's torpedo boats followed by cruisers. On the way back the torpedo-boat destroyer Stereguschtchi, commanded by Lieutenant Sergueieff, sustained damages; her engine was disabled and she began to founder.

"'By 8 o'clock in the morning five of our torpedo-boat destroyers had returned. When the critical position of the Stereguschtchi became evident I hoisted my flag on the cruiser Novik and went with the Novik and the cruiser Bayan to the rescue. But as five of the enemy's cruisers surrounded our destroyer, and as their battleship squadron was approaching, I did not succeed in saving the Stereguschtchi, which foundered. Part of the crew was made prisoner and part was drowned.

"'On the ships which participated in the night attack one officer was seriously and three others were slightly wounded, two soldiers were killed, and eighteen were wounded.'"

Bottling Up the Russian Fleet.

On February 24, the Japanese attempted to bottle up the Russian fleet in Port Arthur by sinking stone-laden vessels at the entrance to the harbor, employing the tactics which were considered, but not executed, by Admiral Sampson, U. S. N., with the Merrimac, at Santiago, during the Spanish-American war. According to the first account Japanese ships appeared off the harbor with a Japanese fleet behind them and ostensibly in pursuit. The Russians, however, suspected a ruse and their ships sank the stone-laden vessels, engaged and defeated the enemy and drove them off.

On the night of March 22 the Japanese fleet renewed the attempt to bottle up Port Arthur. Sixteen warships escorted seven merchant steamers to the mouth of the harbor and under cover of the bombardment the steamers ran in and were sunk. Three thousand Japanese officers and blue jackets volunteered for this duty. During the day the Japanese fleet had made its fifth attack on Port Arthur.

Japanese Fleet Unharmed.

Vice Admiral Togo's report of the event was as follows:

"The combined fleet acted according to the plan arranged. Two

flotillas of destroyers were outside Port Arthur, as instructed, from the night of the 21st until the morning of the 22d. Although during this time our destroyers were under the fire of the enemy, they sustained no damage. The main fleet arrived off Port Arthur at 8 o'clock on the morning of the 22d.

"I dispatched a part of the fleet in the direction of Pigeon Bay, and ordered the battleships Fuji and Yashima to make an indirect bombardment against the inner side of the port. During the bombardment the enemy's ships gradually came out of the harbor, and at the time when the indirect bombardment stopped, which was about 2 o'clock, the number of Russian ships was five battleships, four cruisers and several destroyers. We believed the enemy was trying, by making a movement of the fleet, to draw us near the forts. The enemy's ships shelled us indirectly, and many of their shots fell near the battleship Fuji, but our ships sustained no damage. About 3 o'clock our vessels withdrew off the port."

Another Daring Attempt Fails.

Under cover of darkness on the morning of March 27, Vice-Admiral Togo made another desperate attempt to bottle up the Russian fleet in Port Arthur, but failed again, and when after daylight Vice Admiral Makaroff steamed out to give battle the Japanese commander refused the challenge and sailed away.

The Japanese practically repeated the tactics of Feb. 24 by sending in four fire ships, preceded by a torpedo boat flotilla, with the exception that the fire ships this time were armed with Hotchkiss guns for the purpose of keeping off the Russian torpedo boat destroyers.

The enemy's attempt was discovered by means of the shore searchlights, and a heavy fire was opened from the batteries and from two gunboats which were guarding the entrance to the harbor. The Russian torpedo boat destroyer Silni was outside on scouting duty, and to the dash and nerve of her commander, Lieutenant Krinizki, is chiefly due the complete defeat of the plans of the Japanese.

Under Fierce Fire.

He at once made straight for the oncoming ships under a hail of fire from the Hotchkiss guns, and torpedoed the leading ship, which sheered off, followed by the others, three of them being piled up on the shore under Golden Hill and one under the lighthouse. The Silni then engaged the entire six torpedo boats of the enemy, coming out from a terrific fight with seven killed and her commander and twelve of her complement wounded, but on the Japanese side only one boat's crew was saved.

The Japanese cruisers which supported the attack exchanged shots with the batteries, and then drew off, after which Vice Admiral Makaroff took a steam launch and examined the fire ships. An hour later the Japanese torpedo flotilla, followed by Vice Admiral Togo's fleet, came up from a southerly direction. Just at daybreak Vice Admiral Makaroff, with his fleet, sailed out to engage the enemy, but after the ships and batteries had fired a few long distance shots Vice Admiral Togo decided to decline the issue and disappeared to the southward.

Joy in Russia.

The news of the repulse of Vice Admiral Togo's attempt to block Port Arthur created much rejoicing in the Russian capital, and among all classes the gallantry of the Silni and her commander was the subject of high praise; but above all the moral effect of Vice Admiral Makaroff's willingness to engage the enemy, showing that he considered himself strong enough to fight, produced a splendid impression.

Honors to a Hero.

The Japanese naval hero of the war, in the popular mind, was Commander Takaso Hirose, who lost his life when Admiral Togo made the above attempt to bottle up the harbor of Port Arthur. The Japanese greatly appreciated the act of the Russian authorities at Port Arthur in giving a military funeral to the remains of an unknown officer recovered by them after that attack, but which from the description of the uniform worn was considered unquestionably to be those of Hirose. A

fragment of his body was found by the Japanese and was brought to Tokio where it was given a public funeral with high honors, according to the Shinto ceremonial on April 13.

On May 1, Admiral Togo made another attempt to bottle up Port Arthur by sending in eight fire ships. The harbor was, for the time being, sealed, permitting the egress of only the smaller torpedo boats. This temporary sealing of the channel, however, prevented the egress of the Russian ships and enabled the Japanese to dispatch a number of troop-laden transports without fear of molestation. The parting between the Admiral and the heroic volunteers for the venture was most affecting, the former realizing that he was sending his men to almost certain death.

After the Battle.

A correspondent who visited Port Arthur shortly after one of the bombardments wrote the following graphic description of the beleaguered city:

"Despite the various assaults the external aspect of Port Arthur remains unchanged, although the enemy fired an enormous number of projectiles. The marine monsters in the harbor look like enermous black hulls and the battleships and cruisers bear marks of the fighting. The black clouds of smoke vomited from their stacks overhang the town. The cruiser Pallada stands almost ready in the dock.

"Near the entrance of the harbor can be seen the charred wrecks of the Japanese fire ships. Aboard one of the farthest out was found the body of a Japanese officer who had shot himself. Beside him lay a chart showing the course of the fire ships and the spot where they sank.

"Six hours of firing by the heaviest guns during the last bombardment did not demolish a single building, but cost a few lives. The husband and child of the Baroness Frank, who was decapitated by fragments of a shell flying in through the window, were unharmed.

Fire is Ineffective.

"The enemy in endeavoring to stand as far as possible outside the range of the Russian batteries rendered their own fire ineffective. The

people are getting used to the bombardments and the Japanese squadron cruising in the offing causes little alarm. Occupations are resuming their wonted course and many stores have been reopened.

"Not a few women heroically refuse to leave Port Arthur, regardless of the tragic death of Baroness Frank. During the height of the cannonading one woman, armed with dressings for wounds, wandered the streets, ready to afford aid to the wounded.

"A branch of the Russo-Chinese Bank is doing business, and many wives of the officers and soldiers are returning as Sisters of Mercy. The land defenses are being strengthened every day, and the troops are eager to fight. The gayety and good spirits of the troops are surprising.

Fighters at Close Range.

"During the engagement between the Russian and the Japanese torpedo boat destroyers the boats came into very close quarters, being within only a few fathoms' length of each other. A torpedo from the Russian destroyer Vlastini tore off the stern of one of the enemy's destroyers, her captain standing on the bridge as she sank amid wild cries.

"Port Arthur is exceedingly gloomy at night, all lights being out. Pickets patrol the street, stopping all pedestrians. Three Chunchuses (Chinese bandits) a few days ago attacked a house in the center of the town. The master of the house killed two of the Chunchuses, and a third was killed by the officers."

Thrilling Description by an Eye-Witness.

A Russian officer commanding a battery on Electric Hill during a bombardment of Port Arthur, contributed the following vivid account:

"It was a clear sunlit day and there was a gentle swell on the water. A little spot appeared through the haze on the far horizon and then another and another, until these spots were increased to fifteen. Nearer and nearer they came, and larger and largér they appeared, until, when six miles off, there was a tiny puff of smoke, and all in the battery wondered where the projectile was going to fall.

"Forty fathoms below the cliff where we were lay the battleship Peresviet. Bang! A shell burst under her bows, splashing the decks with spray. There was another puff and a projectile whistled overhead, crashing on the rock behind us. Then came a third. It was a moment of terrible suspense. There was a terrific explosion overhead. They had got our range exactly.

"It was the signal for us to open fire, and ten batteries and twelve warships joined in the reply. What followed is almost indescribable. The sea underneath where we stood fairly boiled with the swish and plunge of projectiles, and words of command were inaudible to the gunners. I tried vainly to shout my orders while 150 guns were belching in a prolonged roar and shells were bursting overhead with a hellish crash. The smoke and dust blinded us.

No Death Terrors.

"I did not experience excitement, and only that my tooth began to ache, there was a strange sensation of contentment amidst the scenes of death, which had no terrors after the first shell had exploded. Suddenly a white-faced gunner pointed to a battery of quick-firing guns half-way down the hill, which had been placed there to prevent a Japanese landing. I ran down and found the scene one of the wildest. There was a battle orgy of bursting shells and whistling fragments, the smoke stench reeking the earth.

"One shell had burst among the gunners. A soldier was lying disemboweled and another had his skull crushed. A third soldier was delirious, and there were splinters in his head. One gun had been broken like a reed. It was a dreadful sight, with blood everywhere.

"After the battle was over Lieutenant General Stoessel, commander at Port Arthur, pinned the cross of St. George on my breast. But what does it matter—I am in the hospital."

CHAPTER XXVI.

DESTRUCTION OF THE PETROPAVLOVSK

The Assassin of the Sea—A Five Million Dollar Boat and Eight Hundred Men Lost—Miraculous Escape of Grand Duke Cyril—Description of the Petropavlovsk—Admiral Makaroff—How a Submarine Fights—Enticed into a Trap—An Eye Witness Describes the Disaster—Russian Torpedo Boats Sink a Japanese Transport—Loss of the Yoshino and Hatsuse.

ON THE morning of April 13, a few Japanese were seen approaching Port Arthur. Seeing that he did not have a superior force to engage, Admiral Makaroff signaled all the ships of his fleet to follow him to sea and went out to do battle. Before the Japanese fleet was reached, re-enforcements for Admiral Togo appeared on the horizon, swelling the attacking force to thirty ships, big and little. There was no chance for the Russian fleet to win against such odds, and Makaroff signaled a retreat.

No Chance to Escape.

The squadron was entering the roadstead when the Petropavlovsk either touched a mine or was struck by a torpedo shot from a submarine boat. A huge hole was blown in the starboard side of the ship, near the middle, and she immediately turned turtle and sank bottom up in a few minutes. The crew was at the fighting stations, and the Russians, penned up below the decks and in the turrets, had no chance to escape, for the disaster was over in a minute.

Immediately after the explosion the sailors were signaled to flood some of the compartments on the port side to throw the ship on an even keel, but they had no time even to begin this work. It is believed that Admiral Makaroff was in the conning tower, from which there was no chance of escape. With the Grand Duke Cyril on the bridge of the ship, were Captain N. Jakovleff and two other officers, and all

were saved. It was claimed by many that a submarine torpedo boat struck the blow that sank the Russian flagship, that unseen and unsuspected, the "assassin of the sea" crept up under the ironclad and stabbed it in its vitals. In two and one-half minutes a $5,000,000 armored vessel, the most powerful sea-fighter in the Czar's navy, lay in scrap-iron at the bottom of the sea, with the commander-in-chief and his staff and 800 men wiped out.

New Art of Marine Warfare.

In every possible way Japan guarded the secret of her new naval weapon and Admiral Togo, in his report of the engagement, was careful to explain that the battleship struck a Japanese mine which had been planted during the previous evening. It was known, however, that three years ago the Japanese bought plans for submarine torpedo boats from an American firm. Inside a walled enclosure near Sasebo the Japanese built and tested three submarines similar in design to the United States submarine Fulton. Newspaper correspondents were forbidden to follow the fleet, and the usual courtesy of welcoming naval officers of neutral nations as guests on board the ships was declined by Japan.

According to a well known authority, Japan, the youngest of all naval powers, achieved the distinction of making a practical demonstration of the new art of marine warfare before the eyes of the world. Heretofore the submarine had been a theoretical weapon; Japan proved its effectiveness. A moment's study of the disaster to the Petropavlovsk settles beyond question the fact that great fighting ships are helpless and worthless in the presence of this new and overwhelming weapon of war.

Hidden under thirty feet of water, the Japanese submarine crept up to the Russian ironclad and detonated two hundred pounds of gun-cotton squarely under the engine rooms of the Petropavlovsk. The explosion of the torpedo tore through the armored underside, letting a flood of cold sea water in upon the red-hot boilers. Instantly the boilers burst, splitting the battleship into halves. A vast column of steam and

water shot two hundred feet into the air, and through this rose even higher the whirling fragments of boilers, engines, guns and crew from the gutted midship section of the vessel.

A Miraculous Escape.

A tongue of flame swept aft through the ship and penetrated the powder magazine under the rear gun turret. As the after half of the flagship settled in the water this magazine exploded, splitting off the ship's stern and tearing into fragments the commanding officer's cabin, where sat Admiral Makaroff, with his staff assembled about him in counsel.

A moment later the forward half of the battleship had sunk. But a muffled roar, a cloud of smoke and steam and a seething mass of bubbling suds on the surface of the sea made it plain that one of the forward powder magazines had feebly exploded in the sunken wreck.

By a miracle, Grand Duke Cyril, the heir to the Russian throne, escaped. Standing on the captain's bridge with his back to the heavily armored conning tower, he was partly sheltered from the explosion of the boiler behind him. The concussion threw him off his feet, and as the ship heeled over to port the Grand Duke rolled to the edge of the bridge and over, falling to the deck below. Before he could regain his feet the gun-deck, on which he had tumbled, was awash as the ship careened still further to port. At this instant the turret magazine in the severed after-half of the ship blew up, and the resultant towering wave which swept in every direction picked up Cyril and bore him a hundred feet away from the wreck. On the crest of this same wave traveled a broken portion of the Admiral's steam launch, which had been torn from the davits. Fortunately this proved to be the bow section of the launch, which is an air-tight compartment—a veritable life preserver. To this the Grand Duke Cyril clung until he was saved.

Nobody will even know exactly how many were lost on the flagship. Of something more than 850 souls only 53 officers and men escaped. Most of the men were at their stations throughout the ship, and were stunned by the explosions and drowned a moment later. Two minutes

and a half after the guncotton torpedo blew the bottom out of the boiler rooms the ship had disappeared in the sea.

Battleship at Mercy of Submarine.

The modern battleship, heavily armored against shells and solid shot, and equipped with chain nets to keep off surface torpedoes, has no protection against a submarine boat.

Indeed, in a fight between an 11,000 ton battleship costing over five millions of dollars and carrying a fighting force of 850 men and a tiny, fragile submarine boat of 75 tons, with a complement of only five men, the battleship is completely at the mervy of its diminutive opponent. The cruel, pitiless inequality of such an encounter is, to say the very least, marvellous, especially when the frightful, appalling and almost inevitable result is taken into consideration.

The Petropavlovsk cost 34 times as much, weighed 147 times as much and carried 170 times as many men as the Japanese water rat. And yet, in spite of all its apparent disadvantages, the submarine craft had the big Russian battleship at its mercy from the moment the Petrapavlovsk emerged from the harbor at Port Arthur, enticed on, in fact, by the other Japanese war vessels, which were merely the bait used for drawing the enemy into the submarine trap.

Disemboweled the Ship.

The first official explanation—that the battleship was accidentally sunk by collision with one of the mines planted in the channel by the Russians themselves—did not survive the first wave of horror caused by the disaster. Just as soon as the exact nature and extent of the explosion were made known naval experts declared that it would have been impossible to have disemboweled the ship with a contact mine. They said a submarine torpedo boat must have attacked the Petropavlovsk, creeping up close to the enemy and accurately discharging a Whitehead torpedo against the ship's most vital part.

The first official Russian verification of this belief came from the Grand Duke Vladimir at St. Petersburg two days after the loss of the battleship. He said:

"We knew that the Japanese had two submarines, but we did not suppose them rash enough to send submarines such a distance from the fleet or allow them to venture as far as the entrance of the channel of Port Arthur. The submarine which did so must certainly have sunk."

Since then it has been very positively stated by an American naval officer, whose name, for diplomatic and other reasons, has not been divulged, that Japan had four submarine torpedo boats of the Holland type when the war broke out. One of these he actually saw in course of construction in a shipbuilding enclosure near Sasebo. The other three were completed and in commission ready for active service.

Boat Reduced to Scrap Iron.

Admiral Togo claimed for his squadron the credit of sinking the battleship by counter-mining, leaving it for the Russians to confirm the belief that Japan was using submarines.

It may seem almost incredible that a powerful first-class battleship on which five millions of dollars had been expended could be overpowered by a comparatively insignificant antagonist. The fate of the Petropavlovsk, however, furnished the navies of the whole world with a striking proof of the futility of matching armor-plated monsters against the newest and most deadly of all fighting craft—the submerged torpedo boat, which can approach unseen and strike unawares wherever it pleases and at the most unexpected moment.

Although the Petropavlovsk was launched at St. Petersburg in 1894, ten years ago, she was not put into commission until 1898. The intervening four years were spent in testing various types of guns for her, improving her armament generally and fitting her with the most complete coat of armor plate that could be turned out.

Resembled the Indiana.

The Petropavlovsk was constructed at the New Admiralty Yard at St. Petersburg. She had a displacement of 11,500 tons, and was equipped with English engines of 11,600 horse-power. She was 367 feet long and had a beam of 69 feet. In size and general appearance she resembled somewhat the American battleship Indiana.

She was provided with an armored belt over fifteen inches in thickness, and a protective deck three and a half inches thick. Her two principal turrets were covered with ten-inch Harveyized steel plating, her four secondary turrets and her casemates being of three-inch armor.

Her armament was very formidable, consisting of four 12-inch cannon mounted in pairs, fore and abaft her superstructure, and twelve 5.9-inch quick-firing guns, eight of which were placed in pairs in her secondary turrets, the remaining four being in casemates recessed on her main deck amidships. Besides all these, she carried no fewer than thirty-eight small rapid fire and machine guns, in addition to six torpedo tubes. On her trial trip, under natural draught, she realized a speed of over seventeen knots an hour during a twelve-hour run.

Immediately upon hearing of the disaster to the Petropavlovsk, the Czar appointed Vice-Admiral Skrydloff, known as the "Bulldog of the Russian Navy," to the command of the Port Arthur squadron.

A Strange Fatality.

Admiral Makaroff's death was really a greater loss than would be that of several battleships. He was the pride of the navy and enjoyed the implicit confidence of his sovereign as well as of the officers and men of the service. Speaking of his death naval officers remarked upon the strange fatality that he should lose his life on a heavily armored battleship, to which he had a particular aversion. The morning of his death he raised his flag for the first time on a battleship. Previously he had gone out on board the cruiser Novik or the cruiser Askold. It was at the urgent request of his friends that he did not risk his life in this fashion and transferred his flag to the Petropavlovsk.

It was an open secret that Admiral Makaroff was not anxious to resign his command of Cronstadt to go to the far East, this necessitating his leaving his wife and family, but the emperor held such a high opinion of him that he declined to consider other candidates, although it was pointed out that Rear Admiral Rojestvensky, chief of the general staff of the navy, who was appointed to command the Baltic squadron, as well as others, were anxious to distinguish themselves.

Forced to Command.

The emperor in his summons to Admiral Makaroff said:

"My choice has fallen upon you and I will not take a refusal."

So the admiral went to the far East. The emperor's sorrow was doubly keen on this account. By imperial command a requiem service was celebrated at the admiralty church in St. Petersburg for the emperor's favorite admiral.

The grief-stricken widow, according to the Russian custom, had a requiem service celebrated at her residence. She had been much worried over the health of her husband, who suffered from diabetes, reference to which was made in a telegram from the admiral, in which he said he was compelled to disobey orders as to taking regular sleep.

The admiral's death was also mourned by his daughter Lillie, a beautiful girl of 19, who was the belle of Cronstadt. Both mother and daughter attended the requiem service at the admiralty church.

The coincidence was generally commented upon that the ice breaker Ermak, one of Admiral Makaroff's greatest triumphs, steamed majestically up the Neva on the day the Petropavlovsk went down, having cut through the ice from Cronstadt, her enormous black hull dwarfing the war ships moored alongside.

Anxious to Win His Spurs.

There is a romantic story connected with Grand Duke Cyril's anxiety to go to the front. He wanted to win his spurs and then marry the woman with whom he is very much in love. The match was opposed by his parents. It was an open secret that the grand duke's lady love was his cousin, the divorced wife of the Grand Duke of Hesse and daughter of the late Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, who married a sister of Alexander III.

How the Deadly Submarine Fights.

The average type of the submarine boat is a steel shell fifty-four feet long, and pointed at the ends, and ten and a half feet wide. Within the comparatively small space inside is stowed away twenty tons of

machinery and fittings. This apparatus consists of a fifty-horse power gasoline engine, which runs the propeller when the boat is on the surface of the water. The engine also charges the storage batteries with electricity. This electrical power is drawn upon to propel the boat below the water's surface when the gasoline engine could not be operated, as it would vitiate the air inside the vessel.

In the bow of the boat are her means of offensive warfare. The most important is a torpedo tube pointing straight ahead on a line with her keel. This is for discharging torpedoes under water at hostile ships. There is another torpedo tube in the bow pointing upward at an angle of about twenty degrees, which is used for firing aerial torpedoes. Through this tube torpedoes can be hurled through the air for a distance of one mile or more, and it is useful when the vessel takes part in a concerted attack upon a battleship or fortification.

Can See Without Being Seen.

The boat is made to dive under the surface by opening the air chambers in the lower part of the hull and filling them with water, and at the same time directing the vessel's course downward by means of horizontal rudders, or planes, on either side. Nine tons of water are sufficient to sink the boat to a depth of five feet below the surface. Still more water ballast can be taken in to cause her to sink to the depth of 140 feet. When the torpedo boat's commander wishes to come to the surface again he simply gives an order, a valve is turned and the water is forced out of the ballast tanks, leaving a vacuum which quickly changes the specific gravity of the submarine, making it lighter than the water and causing it to rise.

The boat is capable of making a speed of ten knots an hour when sailing "awash." That means with all but the boat's conning tower under water. When the conning tower, too, is submerged, and the boat settles to a depth of about thirty feet below the level of the water, she is still capable of maintaining a speed of six or eight knots an hour.

The tremendous advantage the submarine has over all other kinds of fighting ships is that it can always see without being seen. The sub-

marine can sink completely out of sight and in that way either creep up until it is within striking distance, or wait for the enemy's approach.

There is no "chug-chug" of the engines to warn the enemy, because when submerged the torpedo boat derives its propelling power from storage batteries.

Nothing is visible above the surface of the water but a slender tube which rises to a height of one or two feet. This tube contains a powerful omniscope, or "eye," which enables the submarine commander to see a perfect reflection of the whole surface of the water for miles around, just as plainly as if he stood a raft and scanned the horizon through a telescope.

Watching Its Prey from Beneath the Waves.

In a series of tests to determine what danger the submarine ran of being detected by an enemy, it was proved that in a calm sea the tiny gray speck of the submarine's conning tower cannot be seen, even through the most powerful marine glasses, more than a mile. In a rough sea, the conning tower will hardly be visible at more than a few hundred yards. The danger of the submarine being hit by an enemy's guns is very small, as the conning tower is only two feet six inches in diameter. It is protected by four-inch plates, capable of resisting the impact of four-inch projectiles.

And when the submarine boat was totally submerged--that is, with nothing but the tip of the omniscope projecting above the waves, it was impossible to "pick out" the boat until it was within two hundred yards of the supposed enemy.

From this it will be understood how easy it was for the Japanese submarines to creep unobserved right up to the entrance to the Port Arthur channel and lie in wait for their prey there. Not only was Admiral Makaroff unaware of their presence; he probably had only a vague suspicion of their existence. In any event, he had no reason to suspect that even the daring Japanese would send a submarine out miles beyond the protection of their own war ships and give battle—a pigmy against one of the most powerful battleships afloat.

But this is what probably happened. The submarine which sank the Petropavlovsk waited submerged just outside of Port Arthur. A few of Admiral Togo's ships made a demonstration which plainly meant: "Come out and fight." The Russian admiral accepted the challenge and stepped right into the trap set for him with devilish ingenuity by the wily Japs.

Petropavlovsk Enticed Into a Trap.

We have already told of the frightful consequences of that fatal step. The Petropavlovsk was singled out by the hidden submarine as its intended victim. Silently and swiftly it approached the enormous battleship which was then on its way back to the harbor after ascertaining the overwhelming strength of the enemy.

Still unobserved, the Japanese submarine drew nearer until it was well within striking distance. Then a Whitehead torpedo was discharged at the Petropavlovsk, which staggered and sank beneath the series of external and internal explosions that followed.

Four Years Consumed in Building the Petropavlovsk.

About two years are required to build and complete a battleship. In the case of the Petropavlovsk almost four years were consumed in building, and even after she was launched another four years was spent in experimenting with her guns, engines, armor plate and fighting tops before she was considered ready for active service. During all this time an average of one hundred men were employed daily in the ship's construction, either in the Admiralty yard or in the arsenal or government armor-plate works, where much of the material was turned out. This accounted for almost a million and a quarter dollars in wages.

The Petropavlovsk had a displacement of eleven thousand tons, represented for the most part by iron and steel. This, with other items of construction, such as timber and glass, accounted for $950,000 more. Another enormous item of expense was the armament, on which it has been estimated that a round million dollars was spent.

The ship's powerful engines cost fully $450,000 to build, and in connection with these must be considered the electric hoists, steering ap-

paratus, heating and lighting apparatus and all the other modern appliances and contrivances which contribute to the completion of the modern fighting ship. Then there were interior and exterior fittings which cost a large fortune in themselves, and a list of miscellaneous necessary appliances for working the ship, which ran the total cost to the five-million-dollar mark.

Launching the Battleship.

A curious ceremony marked the launching of the Petropavlovsk. The battleship was christened, blessed and dedicated to the service of the Czar according to the rules of the Greek Orthodox Church—a procedure in striking contract with that which attends the launching of an American or English warship.

An altar with shining golden candelabra and a generous silver font of holy water was arranged under the battleship's prow, and when the hour for the launching ceremony drew near a score of bronzed sailors assembled under the starboard side of the bow and opened little black hymn books as they prepared to chant the prescribed anthems. Down on the ground hundreds of other sailors drew up in line as a guard of honor. Six bishops and priests, wearing their flowing vestments, led the procession of lesser dignitaries, officials of the Russian government and invited guests.

How the Battleship Was Christened.

As soon as the priests reached the platform erected under the Petropavlovsk's prow they took their places at the altar and the ceremonies commenced. The opening prayer was listened to by all with uncovered heads, and then the sailor choir chanted the first hymn of the christening service. A choral mass followed, during which the ship and name were made one, and were dedicated to the Czar's service.

As they concluded the mass the celebrants blessed the battleship thrice, standing directly under the powerful-looking ram. Then they held aloft the golden crucifix which the bishops, priests and officials reverently kissed. Then 200 brawny men drove home the wedges and split the keel blocks out. The beams that had shored up the ship in her

cradle were knocked loose and then the men stood waiting for the signal to cut away the "shoe" pieces, or last restraining timbers.

One of the bishops advanced with a large crucifix and a Russian naval officer with a golden sword. Side by side they stood against the prow and waited while a final benediction was pronounced. Then, as the crucifix and sword touched the prow together the workmen tore out the last remaining "shoe" pieces, and the Petropavlovsk was launched upon a career which ended so disastrously just outside of the harbor at Port Arthur.

The following graphic description of the loss of the Petropavlovsk is from the pen of a war correspondent who witnessed the disaster:

"Tuesday, April 12, Vice Admiral Makaroff took to sea with his entire squadron, including fourteen torpedo boats. The next night, April 13, in the teeth of a gale, eight torpedo boats were sent out to reconnoiter. From Golden Hill, on which I was standing, through the blackness the searchlight of the fortifications flashed over the inky waters of the roadstead and far out to the hazy horizon.

Hears Firing at Sea.

"At 11 o'clock I heard firing at sea and counted seven shots, but could see nothing. At daybreak I made out through the light haze to the southward, about five miles from shore, six torpedo boats strung out in line, all firing. In the lead and outstripping the others was a boat heading at full speed directly for the entrance of the harbor. The last in line was beclouded in steam and lagging. She evidently had been hit. It was difficult to distinguish our boats, but finally through my glasses I saw that the leader and the laggard were Russian and that the other four were Japanese.

"The flash of the guns and the splash of the projectiles as they struck the water showed the intensity of the conflict. The torpedo boat from which steam was escaping was firing viciously. The four center craft drew together, concentrating their fire upon her, but the crippled destroyer poured out her fire and was successfully keeping off her assailants.

News Is Flashed.

"The signal station flashed the news to the man of the batteries that the vessel was the Strashni. The unequal combat was observed with breathless interest, but the net drew close around the doomed boat. The four Japanese vessels formed a semi-circle and poured in a deadly fire. The steam from the Strashni grew denser, covering her like a white pall. Still she fought like a desperately wounded animal brought to bay. Running straight for the adversary barring her way to safety, she passed the Japanese astern and fired at them.

"At this stage Vice Admiral Makaroff, who had been observing the progress of the conflict through a telescope, signaled to the cruiser Bayan, lying in the inner harbor, to weigh anchor and go out to the rescue.

Cling to Their Victim.

"The Japanese destroyers clung to their victim like hounds in a chase. They had become separated, but again resumed their formation. Small jets of flame and smoke were spurting from the light rapid-firers, varied by denser clouds as torpedoes were discharged against the Strashni.

"It was the end. The stricken boat loosed a final round, but it was as if a volley had been fired over her own grave, for she disappeared beneath the waves, only a little cloud of steam marking the place where she went down.

"Satisfied with what they had accomplished, the Japanese torpedo boats turned and made off at full speed, followed by the Bayan. To their support came six of the enemy's cruisers. Still the Bayan went on, seemingly inviting certain destruction. She soon ported her helm to bring a broadside to bear upon the foe, which was advancing in line of battle. She opened fire on some of them and turned quickly and stood on into the hail of the enemy's broadsides. The Japanese steamed at a slight angle, enabling all their guns to bear, and projectiles rained around the Bayan, raising columns of water as they burst, but none struck home.

Torpedo Boats Appear.

"To the eastward suddenly appeared five more of our torpedo boats, returning to the harbor under forced draught. Two of the Japanese cruisers were immediately detached to cut them off, but the Bayan, noticing the movement, checkmated it by turning a hot fire upon them. The movement was effective. The Japanese cruisers slowed down and the torpedo boats slipped through into the harbor.

"Meantime, in accordance with Vice Admiral Makaroff's order, the battleships and cruisers in the inner harbor slipped anchor. Majestically the Petropavlovsk, flying the admiral's flag, steamed through the entrance. On her appearance the more formidable of the Japanese cruisers turned and fled. The admiral signaled the Bayan to return. Then a stream of vari-colored signal flags fluttered out, 'Bravo, Bayan.'

"By this time the entire Russian squadron was in the outer harbor. Besides the Petropavlovsk, I saw the battleships Peresviet, Poltava, Pobieda and Sevastopol, the cruisers Novik, Diana and Askold, and the torpedo boats. The flags announcing the admiral's approbation of the Bayan were hauled down and replaced by another signal. Immediately the torpedo boats dashed ahead and the heavier ships began to spread out.

Enemy Out of Range.

"Seeing the flight of the Japanese cruisers, the Petropavlovsk opened fire with her great guns, but the enemy was out of range and soon disappeared. Our squadron continued the chase, finally fading from view. I waited anxiously for its reappearance and in about an hour it came in sight. Far beyond it, the number of points from which smoke arose announced the presence of the enemy. Nearer and nearer came the vessels, and at last I made out behind our squadron a fleet of fourteen of which six were battleships and the remainder armored and unarmored cruisers.

"Our squadron, with the Petropavlovsk leading, arrived at the entrance to the harbor and drew up in line of battle. Another signal was floated from the flag ship and the torpedo boats at once proceeded

through the entrance into the inner harbor. Vice Admiral Makaroff evidently was unwilling to risk his vulnerable craft to the heavy projectiles of the enemy's armored ships.

Prepared for Death.

"I watched the Petropavlovsk closely as she steamed toward Electric Cliff. The frowning marine monster, whose guns were ever turning toward the enemy, was prepared to send huge messengers of death against him. All was quiet. It was the hush before a battle—the hush when every nerve is strained. I looked for the Japanese ships, but they were without movement, save that caused by the heaving sea.

"My glance returned to our squadron. The Petropavlovsk was almost without headway, when suddenly I saw her tremble. She seemed to rise out of the water, a tremendous explosion rent the air, then a second and then a third. Fragments flew in all directions and wreckage and men were mixed up in a terrible mass.

Sinks in Open Sea.

"I was hardly able to realize the horror of it when the ship began to list. In a moment the sea seemed to open and the water rushed over her. The Petropavlovsk had disappeared. The floating woodwork and the few men struggling in the water were all that were left to recall the splendid fighting machine which a few hours before had sailed out of the harbor.

"The same shock experienced by the observers on Golden Hill paralyzed for a moment the men on the ships, but when it passed, torpedo boats and small boats hastened to the rescue of the survivors.

"Eager to ascertain what had occurred on board the sunken ship, I hastened to a landing where a small remnant of the crew were being put ashore and conveyed to a hospital. Signalman Bochkoff, who was slightly wounded, was able to give me a remarkably clear statement of the disaster. He said:

"'We were returning to the harbor, the Petropavlovsk leading. Some of our cruisers which had remained in the harbor came out and

steamed toward the enemy, firing sixteen shots at him with their bow guns. They then retired. The enemy numbered fourteen heavy ships, nearly all armored, while ours were nine. Against their armored cruisers we had only the Bayan. I stood in the wheelhouse on the bridge of the Petropavlovsk, looking up the signal book. The admiral's last signal had been for the torpedo boats to enter the harbor.

Explosions Are Heard.

" 'The Petropavlovsk slowed speed and almost stood still. Suddenly the ship shook violently. I heard a fearful explosion, immediately followed by another and then another. They seemed to me to be directly under the bridge. I rushed to the door of the wheelhouse, where I met an officer, probably a helmsman. I could not pass him, and I sprang to the window and jumped out. The ship was listing, and I feared that every moment she would turn over.

" 'On the bridge I saw an officer weltering in blood—it was our admiral—Makaroff. He lay face downward. I sprang to him, grasped him by the shoulder and attempted to raise him.

" 'The ship seemed to be falling somewhere. From all sides flew fragments. I heard the deafening screech and the frightful din. The smoke rose in dense clouds and the flames seemed to leap toward the bridge where I was standing beside the admiral. I jumped on the rail and was washed off, but succeeded in grabbing something. I was sucked down. I remember the falling masts and then nothing more.

" 'On our ship was an old man with a beautiful white beard, who had been good to our men. He had a book in his hand and seemed to be writing, perhaps sketching. He was Verestchagin, the painter.' "

Japanese Naval Disasters.

On April 26, two Russian torpedo-boats of the Vladivostok squadron, while off Sinpho, met the Japanese military transport Kinshiu Maru laden with military stores and coal, and carrying detachments of troops. The captain of the ship and three or four officers went on board the Russian. The men on board the transport refused to surrender, and seven-

ty-three of them were sent to the bottom with the ship. Some, however, escaped in boats. The same evening the Russians also sank the Japanese steamer Nakamaura Maru whose crew were placed in safety.

On May 15, the Japanese lost two warships. The details of the disaster, according to Admiral Togo, were as follows:

"At fourteen minutes past 1 in the afternoon of May 15, in a deep fog off Port Arthur, the Kasuga rammed the Yoshino, sinking the latter in a few minutes. The same morning the Hatsuse, while cruising off Port Arthur covering the landing of the soldiers, struck a mine ten knots southeast of the harbor entrance. She signalled for help and instantly struck another mine. She sank in half an hour. Three hundred of her crew were saved by torpedo boats."

The crew of the Yoshino comprised 300 men, which would make the list of fatalities on her part 210. The Hatsuse carried a crew of seventy-four, and as 300 were rescued, the fatalities were computed to be 441, making a total of 651 for both boats.

CHAPTER XXVII.

FIRST LAND BATTLES

The Battle of Chong-ju—The Drama of the Yalu—The First Move—Japanese Gunnery—The Russians Evacuate Tiger Hill—Masterly Strategy—Russian Guns Silenced—A Frontal Attack—Planting the Japanese Flag on the Ridge—A Desperate Bayonet Charge—The Moral Effect of the Victory.

DURING the early days of the campaign the movements of the Japanese army on the west coast of Korea were shrouded in mystery. It became known finally, however, that the troops of the Mikado had concluded a series of gradual advances with the occupation of Wiju. The preliminary skirmish occurred at 10:30 a. m. on March 28th, when the Russians and Japanese came for the first time into touch at Chong-ju, a walled Korean town to the north of Anju. Previous to this engagement there had been only occasional firing between scouts, but in this encounter six companies of Russians met Japanese infantry and cavalry in Chong-ju in an encounter which lasted for nearly two hours.

The Battle of Chong-Ju.

The Russians were advancing to Kasan, where they had heard that bodies of Japanese patrols had been seen. On arriving at Chong-ju they encountered a company of Japanese infantry and a squadron of cavalry. The Russians, with an additional three companies, took up a position on a ridge commanding the town. The Russian account states that "notwithstanding this and our commanding position, the Japanese gallantly held their ground, and it was only after a fierce fight of half-an-hour's duration that they ceased fire and sought refuge in the houses. They hoisted Red Cross flags at two points. Soon afterwards, on the Kasan road, three squadrons of the enemy were seen advancing at full gallop towards the town, which two squadrons succeeded in entering. The third fell back in disorder under the repeated volleys of our troops, men

and horses being seen to fall. For an hour afterwards our companies continued to fire on the Japanese in the town, preventing them from leaving the streets and houses to open fire on us. An hour and a half after the beginning of the engagement four companies appeared on the Kasan road hastening up to attack." The Russians then retired and formed up in line behind the hill. The force "moved on" but not in the direction of Kasan. Eventually it reached Koaksan and proceeded northward. The Japanese account stated that in the army's forward movement the Russians were compelled to retire from Chong-ju. This step was followed by the advance of the Japanese through Seng-chen, with which there was a corresponding movement concluding with the occupation of Yongampo and Wiju, and finally of Chyang-syong, a point some little distance from the estuary of the Yalu, and one which once its seizure had been accomplished enabled a wider front upon the river to be secured.

The Struggle on the Yalu.

The following graphic description of the battle of the Yalu, the first great engagement on land between the Japanese and Russian forces was prepared, for the author, by the military expert of the London Times, who was an eye-witness of the conflict.

The operations which resulted in the crossing of the Yalu by the Japanese culminated May 1, in the occupation of Kiu-lien-cheng, north of the Bany River and opposite Wiju. Before crossing the Japanese occupied a front extending from Yongampo to a point fifteen miles above Wiju, whence Gen. Kuroki directed movements extending down and slightly beyond the mouth of the river. Their left cannot easily be accounted for, but it is understood to have extended a long distance, one detachment having crossed the river seventy-five miles above Wiju and disarmed a body of Korean soldiers.

How the Land Lay.

At Wiju the Yalu is split into three streams by two islands, which were held, respectively, by Russians and Japanese, the middle of the

stream forming the barrier dividing the two forces. The river bed opposite Wiju is two miles wide. One mile above the islands the river Ai joins the Yalu. There is a range of mountains between the islands, culminating in a rocky promontory, Tiger Hill, which juts into the bed of the river one mile from Wiju.

Between Tiger Hill and the Korean shore is another island, occupying the river bed some miles above Wiju, Tiger Hill and the adjoining mainland formed the strategic key to the Russian position, and its possession was essential to the success of the Japanese plans.

First Forward Move.

April 28 the Japanese made their first move, occupying the island above Tiger Hill, after a brisk fight, in which they lost nine killed and twenty-four wounded. During the day the Russians opened fire, with field artillery, from Kiu-lien-cheng, upon a number of Japanese and coolies, who were building a trestle bridge from Wiju to the first island.

Later in the day they shelled Wiju for ten minutes, inflicting slight damage. The Japanese refrained from replying. At night, according to the Japanese, the Russians vacated Tiger Hill, an inexplicable step.

During the night of April 28 and the following day, various points somewhere above Wiju were occupied. One division of Japanese infantry crossed the Yalu without opposition from the island occupied during the day.

The Russians evacuated the island adjoining Kiu-lien-cheng April 29, and reoccupied Tiger Hill and its neck, evidently aware of the crossing higher up and desirous of strengthening their left against the development of the Japanese right.

The Japanese Marksmanship Accurate.

In the afternoon the Japanese upon the island above Tiger Hill were subjected to a heavy rifle fire from the dominating heights, and for the first time the Japanese used artillery. Two batteries north of Wiju castle were employed to search the slopes from which the Russians were firing, and twenty minutes of scathing shrapnel firing was kept up.

The Russians were seen laboriously climbing the steep ascents in a vain endeavor to escape the leaden showers. Many dead and wounded were left.

The Russian artillery at Kiu-lien-cheng made ineffectual attempts to quell the Japanese fire, their efforts being in remarkable contrast to the accuracy and concentration of the Japanese shooting.

That night the concentration movement, on foot for some days, came to a head, one division being already across the river and the other two massed behind the hill a mile north of Wiju, protected from the fire of the Russian guns at Kiu-lien-cheng.

Surprise for the Russians.

A great surprise was in store for the Russians. What happened the following day with regard to artillery, deserves to be ranked among the cleverest moves of warfare since the introduction of modern ordnance. The concentration of the division also appears to have been masterly, not only in the execution of movements, but in the manner in which they were concealed from the enemy, who appear to have been ignorant that the Japanese left had closed upon Wiju.

At daybreak, April 30, the scene was peaceful in the extreme. Across the sandy bed of the Yalu meandered three sparkling blue streams. Beyond, the purple mountains of Manchuria stretched in endless vista. Only on the southern slopes of the hills on the Korean side was there evidence of war. Dropping our gaze from the far north to our feet, we saw a valley black with men, horses, baggage, and ammunition trains, and all the paraphernalia of an army on the move. The suggestion was that the army would cross the river, that the crossing was inevitable, and that the possibility of defeat did not enter into the Japanese calculations.

What the Daylight Showed.

When the rising sun lit up the hills opposite Wiju, Japanese in thousands were descried, strung out in single file and streaming along the bridle path traversing the lower slopes. As they wound in and out of

the ravines they gradually ascended, their object evidently being to occupy the heights commanding Tiger Hill and its approaches.

Rounding the spur, they came into view of the Russians on Tiger Hill neck and were instantly subjected to a heavy shrapnel fire. The Russian gun position was thus revealed and the Japanese batteries north of Wiju opened fire and speedily silenced the Russian guns. The Japanese steadily advanced, and soon scaled the heights, whence they brought rifle fire to bear on the Russians, who were eventually compelled to cross the Ai and join their main force.

Dramatic Features of Day.

During these operations the dramatic feature of the day was witnessed. The Russians believed the enemy possessed field guns only, and their positions were calculated to deal with artillery of that caliber alone. For the same reason they had taken no pains to mask their guns. When the Japanese opened upon them with several howitzer batteries they were thunderstruck. On the first island opposite Wiju, held by the Japanese, is a belt of trees, vividly green and fresh looking. From out of this innocent-looking gem of nature came a terrible rain of shell and shrapnel, which played upon the Russian batteries on the conical hill, swept men and guns, tore the ground and smashed rocks. In the air around the Russian position were white puffs of smoke, denoting the explosion of shrapnel, while the hill itself, struck by shells from the heavy howitzers, looked like an active volcano, belching clouds of gray, black smoke from a dozen different places. No sooner had the storm burst than the Russian shrapnel streamed through the air in reply to the unexpected attack.

The green of the trees was obscured by the smoke of bursting shells. Clouds of sand and dust raised by the missiles striking the ground floated away on the wind, and the booming guns and the deep thundering sound of the explosion filled the valley. For half an hour the Russians stuck to their guns manfully, but gradually their guns were silenced. An attempt was made to bring up horses to remove the guns, but this was foiled by a fresh outburst from the Japanese artillery. The

Japanese fire was then directed on the Russian camp and picket lines, creating great havoc.

Japanese Well Protected.

Trees hid the position of the Japanese from the Russians, which was directed on the belt of trees from which the deadly hail came, but the high angle fire of the howitzers enabled the Japanese to work their guns from pits which the Russian shrapnel fired at random, rarely penetrated.

The success of the day was with the Japanese, and the glory with the Russians, who fought their guns to the bitter end. On the night of April 30, the infantry of another Japanese division crossed the Yalu, followed by a third division. At daybreak, May 1, they could be seen on the Russian side of the river stretched out in long, thin black lines, sheltered by the depressions in the bed of the river.

It was easily seen that the Japanese contemplated a frontal attack. Before any move was made the Japanese guns opened up on the ground behind Kiu-leen-cheng with shrapnel shell, sweeping and searching every inch of the ridges where the Russians were supposed to be. No Russian guns replied. They had departed.

Soon the Japanese fire slackened, and then the leading line upon the sand became animated and slowly crept forward toward the base of the conical hill. It advanced quite a long time, during which the suspense was painful to endure. Then there came to listening ears the quick grunting of distant volleys stuttering down the wind and the sound of heavy musketry fire.

The line showed gaps, faltered, and melted away, some running backward, others taking to shelter, many mortally hurt, but the second line close behind gathered up the remnants and swept on, followed by line upon line. Closing on the hill, they diverged to the right and left, winding up the precipitous front and swarming the sloping sides.

Japanese Flag Unfurled.

Meanwhile, at the first volley from the Russians the Japanese artillery again began to plant shells upon the ridge, raising clouds of dust

in every direction. The Japanese continued to climb until they were near the top, when they halted and massed ready to charge over the crest.

Then, in the very midst of the dark blot upon the hillside appeared two flashes and two enlarging clouds. It was another of these sickening accidents that occur on battlefields when guns have been supporting an assault.

Twenty-seven modest Japanese graves now occupy the spot as the heavy penalty for a slight misunderstanding. Worse of the same nature was to befall the Russians before long. At last the rush was made and the Japanese flag was bravely unfurled, first on one side and then on the other, one dark figure racing along, defying the bullets of the retiring Russians, to plant his country's flag in the highest possible place.

Japan had beaten the Russians at their first meeting on land and vindicated her claim to a place among nations.

Could Not Remove Guns.

On May 6 the capture of the Russian position at Kiu-lien-cheng revealed the fact that the Russians were unable to remove eight of their guns, owing, it is believed, to lack of horses, which shows the deadliness of the fire the Japanese directed against the Russian picketing lines on the previous day.

Evidently the Russians anticipated more deliberation on the part of the enemy, whose dashing onslaught forced them to retire and leave these coveted trophies of war. Hardly had the Japanese scaled the position at Kiu-lien-cheng than the reserves of two divisions, who had hitherto taken no part in the proceedings, were set in motion. Both bodies of men, accompanied by mountain guns, hurried along, right and left of the Peking road, with the intention of cutting off the retreat of the defeated Russians. The reserves of the remaining division followed more leisurely, employing delayed tactics.

The flanking bodies in their haste outstripped their guns, and, after advancing parallel to the road until abreast of the retiring enemy, they suddenly closed in, completely surprising the Russians, who were forced to take a defensive position at Hohmutang.

Desperate Charge at Hohmutang.

The body pursuing in the rear quickened its movements, and all three simultaneously engaged the Russians. A desperate fight ensued, the Russians at a short range using their guns with deadly effect. The Japanese greatly outnumbered their opponents and inflicted terrible losses with rifle fire. Without guns the Japanese might well have retired and waited for support, but the men, jealous of the laurels earned by their comrades earlier in the day, were wild to get at the enemy.

With loud cheers all three bodies, with bayonets fixed, charged the Russian positions in almost solid masses. Such impetuosity, backed by superior numbers, could not be withstood, and the Russians hoisted the white flag in token of surrender. With the Russians were twenty guns, all of which fell into the hands of the Japanese. Twenty officers were taken prisoners and 400 men, more than half of them wounded.

The official figures of the casualties and captures on May 1 state that the Japanese losses were: Killed, 5 officers and 160 men; wounded, 29 officers and 666 men; total, 860. So far as the Russians are concerned, 1,362 dead bodies were buried by the Japanese, while 475 wounded were conveyed to the Japanese hospital. The captures were 28 guns, 20 officers and 138 men in addition to the wounded.

The distribution of the Russian force, which had its center at Kiu-lien-cheng, was approximately 2,000 west of Antung, 20,000 at Antung, and 5,000 at Kiu-lien-cheng. The Russians known to have occupied various points on the Yalu above Kiu-lien-cheng took no part in the operations described, nor did any of those below Kiu-lien-cheng.

Russians Were Outnumbered.

While the remarkable victory rests with the Japanese, the fact remains that they outnumbered the enemy nearly ten to one, and must necessarily have effected a crossing and scored success, but that they should have inflicted calamitous defeat upon the Russians beyond all prediction is accounted for by the fact that Russian methods, guns, and rifles are old fashioned. With the Japanese no fault can be found, except that they achieved results at great expense which might have

been accomplished with but little loss, would have held the Russians and permitted a flanking movement on a wider and larger scale, similar to the one which actually took place on the Russian left, seeing that they were in possession of Tiger Hill. Such a move on the part of the Japanese would have been perfectly practicable, considering the number of men and guns at their disposal.

Two factors doubtless influenced them, one the necessity of giving an army, clamorous to emulate the deeds of their naval brethren, an opportunity to earn distinction, and the other the political expediency of inflicting a stunning blow on the enemy and demonstrating at one and the same time their ability to cope with European troops in close quarters. These objects they achieved with the loss of about 900 men, three-fourths of whom were soon ready for duty again. Though the fighting strength of the Russian forces in the Far East was impaired infinitesimally—for many of the guns captured were old, and it is assumed that they are well furnished with modern weapons—the moral effect on the Russian army was tremendous.

They realized that the Japanese soldier was not an object of contempt, but an equal, bold, and relentless foe in war. This was not without effect on the ill-paid Russian soldier, who is almost half a slave. The Japanese calculated upon this effect.

Ghouls on Battlefield.

On the night of the 1st instant Japanese headquarters encamped at Kiu-lien-cheng, the troops after their hard day's fighting bivouacking where they were halted. During the night bands of Chinese swarmed over the two battlefields, stripping the dead of clothes and accoutrements. The Japanese, greatly enraged, established a system of patrols, which prevented the possiblity of such a recurrence or anything similar. They are offering rewards for the apprehension of the miscreants.

On May 2 a Japanese patrol brought word that on the previous night, near Fang-hen-cheng, two Russian parties met in the dark, each mistaking the other for the enemy. A furious fight ensued, which lasted until daylight, when the Russians discovered their grievous error.

It appears that they were rear flanking parties, retiring on the main Russian force, and had narrowly escaped being included in the net which the Japanese had thrown around the rear guard.

Being unable to join their comrades during daylight, they essayed at night to effect a junction, going across country and marching over hills, which in the dark was impracticable. Unfortunately, one party, which had found the road and was making for the Russian camp, heard another party scrambling over the rocks, and opened fire in the direction of the noise, with the unhappy result recorded.

Splendid in Battle.

The following brief but graphic recital of the battle on the Yalu was furnished by an eye-witness who was with the Japanese forces:

"The moonlight night broke into a splendid dawn and revealed the Japanese army drawn up as if on parade. The Russians did not respond to the opening of the Japanese fire, but remained silent and invisible. The Japanese line of infantry, two miles long and entirely exposed, advanced from point to point by swift, sudden rushes, smartly executed in the most brilliant style, firing steadily all the while. We watched anxiously, anticipating that each rush would enter the zone of fire. The Japanese were working around the sides of Kiu-Lien Bay to their position when the Russian trenches suddenly poured a hurricane of rifle fire into them with deadly effect.

"For a moment the Japanese advance weakened and recoiled, then rallied and once more rushed forward across the stream, obtaining some shelter in a dead angle under the base of the mountain. The Russians, not having guns, were unable to reply to the continuous fire of the Japanese artillery.

"The Japanese advance was marked now by prostrate bodies. In one instance two Japanese shells did terrible execution among their own men, who were ascending the slope. Two hours after the advance began an officer suddenly appeared at the top of the slope waving a large Japanese flag, sending an electric thrill through the beholders, all far and near shouting 'Banzai.'"

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE BATTLE OF KINCHOU

Nanshan Hill—The Russian Army Strongly Fortified—Caliber of Russian Guns Ascertained—Battlefield Lighted by Electricity—A Gap in the Defence—Capture of Kinchou—Storming the Heights—A Famous Victory—Japanese Valor—Evacuation of Dalny—Story by an Eye Witness—Loss on Both Sides.

AT 5:30 A. M., Thursday, May 26, the Japanese army, which began the attack on Kinchou on Saturday, May 21, captured the city, and after an all-day battle drove the Russians from the crest of Nanshan hill, at the point of the bayonet, at 7 o'clock in the evening of the same day.

Nanshan hill was taken at a fearful sacrifice of life. Time and again the Japanese lines essayed to storm the height in the face of a terrible rifle and artillery fire. Each time they were thrown back, their lines decimated and shattered. At 3 o'clock in the afternoon the Japanese lines were reformed for a last and desperate effort.

The Russians fought doggedly, but after a four hours' struggle the Japanese swept the crest of the hill, driving the Russians to the southward in confusion and panic. As a feat of arms the capture of Nanshan hill has not been equaled in war since Skobeleff threw the Russian regiments at the impenetrable defenses of Plevna in a vain effort to carry them by storm.

Nanshan a Fortress.

Nanshan hill, 1,100 feet high, was held by the extreme left of the Russian army, and was believed by the Russians to be impregnable. The hill was the strongest part of the Russian line. A series of batteries, strongly emplaced, crowded its crest, while rifle pits extended around its sides. Mines had been placed lower down on this hill, and around the base on the northern and eastern sides were stretched well-made wire entanglements. Another line of defenses, also protected

with wire entanglements, extended from Yenchiatung near the head of Talienwan bay, due north of Linchiatien, which lies south of Kinchou.

Jap Valor Severely Tried.

This was Nanshan hill, and it was over these mines, through these pits, trenches and barbed wire entanglements, and in the face of battery after battery of artillery and line after line of intrenched infantry that the Japanese troops fought their way, inch by inch, foot by foot, to the battery-crowned crest of the height and drove the enemy southward toward Port Arthur.

The capture of Nanshan hill was the climax of five days and nights of battle. The Japanese army with only field artillery and no heavy guns, owing to the difficulty of transportation, was in position for the attack Saturday. The Russians had made elaborate preparations to check the Japanese movement south on the Liaotung peninsula toward Port Arthur. They had fortified the high ground on the south shore of Talienwan bay, their works extending to the east and the west. The extreme Russian right was at Hushangtao, and the extreme left at Nanshan hill. This hill was the strongest part of the line. At Kinchou itself the Russians had a strong force of infantry and artillery.

The Japanese first occupied the line of hills to the east of Kinchou. Their position had formed an almost perfect right angle, showing its southern front to Talienwan and its western front to Kinchou. Chiulichan village was the apex of this angle; the extreme right of the Japanese lines rested at Chenchatien, which is almost due north of Chiulichan, while the extreme left was at Chaitsuho, a village due east of Chiulichan. Back of this angle the attacking force assembled in complete security.

Artillery Opens on Saturday.

The Russians apparently attempted to draw the Japanese attack on Saturday, for their batteries opened fire on the enemy on that day.

The Japanese, however, refused to be drawn into battle until the

positions of the Russians, their guns, and their strength had been fully developed. To this end the Japanese began a series of careful reconnoissances, their officers working their way close enough to the Russian position to draw the enemy's fire. They thus secured fragments of shells for the purpose of ascertainng the caliber of the Russian guns.

Caliber of Russian Guns.

They discovered that the batteries on Nanshan hill included four howitzers of about 15 centimeters caliber, ten old-style cannon of between 9 and 15 centimeters caliber, and two quick firing guns of 12 centimeters.

The Japanese discovered also a number of large emplacements, but they did not learn the number of guns contained therein. These emplacements faced to the north and to the east.

The guns fired by the Russians developed a range of 8,500 meters. Eight heavy guns posted on the Russian right in the vicinity of Hushangtao also were discovered, and another strong Russian position developed by these reconnoissances was on another hill southwest of Nanshan hill, where the Russians had a series of shelter trenches.

Electrically Lighted Battleground.

On the shore of Talienwan bay, close to the head of the bay, the Russians had established a series of positions. Here were set up the searchlights which all through Wednesday night played over the Japanese angle in the hills to the northeast. Probably this was the first instance in the history of warfare that contending armies fought over a battlefield lighted by electricity.

Russian's Fatal Error.

Further reconnoissances developed the fact that west of Liuchiatien the Russians had no defenses. Extending to the northward from Yenchiatien to the west coast of Liaotung peninsula there were no defenses whatever, except the force posted at Kinchou.

This gap in the defense was a fatal defect in the Russian position, and when it was perceived the Japanese extended their right to the

north and east, enveloping Kinchou and the Russian extreme right. The Japanese left also was extended to Wangchiatung, on the shore of Talienwan bay, and the center moved forward.

Capture of Kinchou.

Wednesday morning, May 25, at half-past 5 o'clock, the Japanese attacked Kinchou, and for three hours they had an artillery duel with the batteries on Nanshan hill. The Russian gunners searched the Japanese lines with their fire, but failed to inflict much damage.

The battle was resumed at dawn on Thursday, May 26, and the land forces had the assistance of a number of warships from Vice Admiral Togo's fleet.

Togo Aids the Army.

The gunboats Tsukushi, Kei Yen, Amaki and Chokai, and the first torpedo boat flotilla under Capt. Nishiyama, reached Kinchou bay on the evening of Wednesday. From dawn of Thursday the vessels cooperated with the army in bombarding Nanshan hill. The Amaki and the Chokai, being light draft vessels, went in close and bombarded all day.

At 11 o'clock in the morning the army retreated from Suchaton, but they continued to fire from a position behind Suchaton. The casualties on the Japanese warships were ten, including Capt. Hayashi of the Chokai, who was killed. A Russian gunboat in Talienwan bay steamed close to the shore and shelled the Japanese left. From dawn the batteries on both sides hammered away at each other.

At daybreak the Japanese infantry moved forward, and, after an hour's fighting, and at twenty minutes past 5 o'clock on Thursday morning, they entered Kinchou, the Russians retiring to the south and taking up a position on Nanshan hill.

Nanshan Hill Attacked.

The Japanese army lost no time in pressing forward to the assault of Nanshan hill. It had been fighting day and night since Saturday, but its most fearful task was before it.

The hill could be carried only by a frontal attack. The Japanese general realized the sacrifice, but it could not be evaded. The hill stood between the Japanese advance and Port Arthur. He ordered the attack.

The Japanese troops advanced with a rush, cheering for the emperor. They were driven back. Again they attacked and again they were driven back. The dead and wounded covered the ground of the bloody hillside, and yet again the mikado's soldiers rushed at the trenches, broke through the meshes of barbed wire and netting, only to be thrown back.

Japs Storm the Heights.

In the middle of the afternoon the Russian resistance apparently was as dogged as ever. Japanese reserves were brought up, and at 3 o'clock the Japanese forces lined up for the final, and, as it proved to be, the successful rush up the hillside. The Russians, unable longer to resist the impetuous advance of the enemy, weakened as trench after trench was occupied by the mikado's troops.

Finally, at 7 o'clock in the evening, after sixteen hours of continuous battle, the Japanese lines swept the crests and Nanshan hill was won.

Russians in Retreat.

The Russians retired to the line of hills farther to the southward, toward Nanquanling, where they had constructed a second line of defense, but failed to rally at that point. As the Russians retreated they exploded a series of mines under the railroad, destroying it in many places.

A brief official telegram characteristic of Japanese reserve summed up the result as follows:

"We attacked the enemy at Nanshan, south of Kinchou. We silenced the enemy's forts upon Roten hill and occupied Nanshan at 7 o'clock in the evening. At Nanshan the enemy offered a stubborn resistance. Each of the forts was surrounded by several trenches coupled together and equipped with additional means of defense and using efficient weapons. Several times we tried to carry the point,

but failed to do so. At 3 o'clock p. m. we penetrated the enemy's position with fixed bayonets and the enemy retreated towards Nanquanling. The enemy destroyed the Kinchou railway station with a mine. We fought for sixteen hours without cessation, and then carried the Russian position at the point of the bayonet despite the enemy's heavy fire."

Fought Against Great Odds.

Telegrams from the Japanese commanders were forwarded to Tokio, praising the bravery and fortitude of their officers and men. A Japanese officer of high rank made the following statement:

"The Japanese in attacking Kinchou and Nanshan hill had to fight against great odds. The Russians were in full command of the strategical advantages afforded by nature, and these advantages were augmented by the newest inventions for defense. The forts on Nanshan hill were armed with heavy guns. The Japanese had only field guns, heavy guns being unavailable on account of the difficulties of transportation. Our losses were heavy, but we gained the strongest point barring our way to the investment of Port Arthur."

Destruction of Russian Mines.

A noted military authority in commenting on the Japanese assault on Nanshan hill affirms that it was one of the fiercest and bloodiest affairs in modern warfare. In the earlier rushes of the engagement every man participating was shot down before he reached the first line of Russian trenches. It was found necessary to stop these infantry charges and renew the artillery fire from the rear before the final and successful assault on the Russian position could be made.

The success of this assault was brought about by one detachment of Japanese troops, more intrepid than their comrades, who succeeded in piercing the Russian lines.

A splendid stroke of fortune was the discovery and destruction by the Japanese of the electric wires leading to the mines at the eastern foot of Nanshan hill. This prevented the Russians from exploding

these mines when the Japanese infantry crossed the ground where they had been placed.

It is possible that the fortune of the day hinged upon these mines. If the Russians had been able to explode them at the right time the losses among the Japanese troops would have been tremendous, and it is possible also that the Russians would have been able to hold the hill.

Nanshan Splendidly Defended.

Nanshan was splendidly defended. Nearly fifty guns of various sizes were mounted on the various emplacements and there were also two batteries of quick firing field pieces.

The artillery was sheltered behind loopholes trenched on the terraces of the hill. The infantry manning the field pieces ran with them around the hill, thus using these guns for the protection of the most important points.

Russian Batteries Silenced.

The Japanese began the fight by bringing all their field guns into action and concentrating their fire on the emplacements on the hill. By 11 o'clock in the morning the principal Russian batteries had been silenced. The two Russian field batteries then withdrew to Nanquanling hill, and from there continued to fire on the Japanese until nightfall.

After the Russian batteries had been silenced the Japanese artillery opened on the enemy's trenches, the Japanese infantry advancing meanwhile to within rifle range. The Japanese gradually worked to within 400 yards of the Russian lines, where they encountered wire and other entanglements.

Every Man Shot Down.

They succeeded in discovering an opening in these obstacles and getting finally to within 200 yards of the Russian trenches they rushed for the line. Several successive charges were made, but every officer and man in the attacking parties was shot down twenty or thirty yards from the line.

The charges were then stopped and the Japanese artillery renewed its preparatory fire on the enemy's position. Towards evening a detachment of Japanese carried a section of the Russian trenches, breaking through the enemy's line.

Hundreds of the comrades of these men, inspired by their success, sprang forward, and then the entire Japanese line swept up the hill, driving the Russians from their positions. It was in the desperate infantry charges that the Japanese sustained the bulk of their losses.

The Russians Evacuate Dalny.

On May 30 a large force of Japanese troops entered Dalny. The Russian barracks and warehouses, the railway and telegraph stations, and more than 100 buildings were uninjured. The Russians also left 200 railway cars intact, which the Japanese were able to use. All the small railroad bridges, however, in the vicinity of the town were destroyed. The Russians demolished the largest pier, but all other docks and smaller piers were uninjured. Several steam launches were sunk at the entrance to the dock, but the harbor jetties were found to be intact. The Russians also destroyed the gunboat used at Talienwan against the Japanese left during the battle of Nanshan hill. It was very evident that the Russians fled quickly when Nanshan hill was lost, probably expecting that General Oku would immediately take possession of Dalny.

Driving Home the Wedge.

The following story of an eye-witness of the battle of Kinchou is a thrilling recital of unquestioning heroism on the part of the Japanese and dogged resistance on the side of the Russians:

"Forty thousand Japanese were massed behind the western spur of Mount Sampson under such small cover as afforded by the twin peaks. The troops were within 2,000 yards of the Russian works.

"There was so little room to deploy for attack that battalions of Japanese troops were obliged to stand in the sea waiting for the mo-

ment of attack, exposed to a veritable inferno of fire from the Russian batteries. The shells plowed into their serried masses.

Jap Artillery in Action.

"Meantime battery after battery of Japanese guns went into action upon the Chilichwang and the Kauchiayan flats and a sustained gunboat fire played upon the Russian works. Their line was fringed with bursting projectiles.

"About midday the energy of the Russian defenders in the works in front of Mauchiaying village seemed exhausted by the gunboat fire. Two Japanese battalions appeared over the saddle between the twin peaks and made a desperate effort to carry the nearest Russian works.

"At first the straggling walls of Mauchiaying gave them some cover and a moment's breathing space. Then the gallant little infantrymen crept on again up the slopes toward the Russian position.

Avalanches of Bullets.

"It was an impossible task. As yet the defenders had not been sufficiently shaken. An avalanche of concentrated fire from infantry in the trenches, machine guns in the Russian works, and quick firing field artillery in the supporting defenses struck the Japanese. They melted away from the glacis like solder before the flame of a blowpipe. A few who seemed to have charmed lives struggled on until they reached the wire entanglements.

Two Battalions Wiped Out.

"It was in vain. Heroic effort was wasted. Within fifteen minutes these two battalions ceased to exist except as a trail of mutilated bodies at the foot of the Russian glacis.

"Seeing the failure of this attack the gunboats and supporting artillery concentrated the whole of their fire upon the point where General Oku had determined to drive home his wedge, and by evening the works were practicable for an assault by a general who had such in-

fantry as the Japanese and who was prepared to take the responsibility of such fearful losses.

"It would seem as if the actual carrying of the works had been another Alma. The word was given for a bayonet attack. Then the whole Japanese front surged forward, and the moral balance went over to the side of the Japanese, the Russians retiring before them."

The Japanese Lose 4,304 Men.

The total of the Japanese casualties at the battle of Nanshan hill was 4,304, divided as follows: Thirty-one officers, including one major and five sergeant majors, and 713 noncommissioned officers and men killed; 100 officers, including one colonel, one major, and twelve surgeon majors, and 3,460 noncommissioned officers and men wounded. The Russian losses in the fighting at Kinchou were officially stated to have been 30 officers and 800 men killed or wounded.

Gen. Stoessel's report stated that the attack began on May 21 and culminated on the evening of May 26. The real fighting was practically confined to May 25 and 26, the Japanese remaining quiet the two previous days.

Gen. Stoessel's Report.

"After a fierce battle lasting two days, I ordered our positions at Kinchou to be evacuated in the evening, for we had opposed to us at least three divisions with 120 guns.

"The enemy's fire, particularly that from four gunboats and six torpedo boats, completely annihilated our batteries mounted at Kinchou. The Fifth regiment, which was posted on this spot, stood its ground heroically. The fire of this regiment, as well as that of our batteries and the gunboat Bobr off Khounoueza, inflicted enormous losses on the Japanese.

"Our losses amounted to thirty officers and 800 men killed or wounded. We blew up or damaged all our guns which the Japanese had not put out of action. It would have been inexpedient certainly to bring up siege artillery during the fierce fighting.

"The battle of May 26 began at 5 a. m. and lasted until 8 p. m., when I ordered the position evacuated gradually. The explosion of a number of our mines and fougades was rendered impossible by the Japanese, who turned our position immediately. The Japanese advanced through water up to their waists under the protection of their ships."

Gen. Stoessel's reported further, that owing to the absence of the support of warships against the Japanese artillery fire at the time of the final assault on the Russian positions on Nanshan hill during the evening of May 26 he at 8 o'clock gave the order to blow up the guns and retire. The general stated that the order was only partly executed, as the enemy's flank movements necessitated promptness in retreat, which, he says, was carried out with great coolness, thus accounting for the smallness of the Russian losses.

CHAPTER XXIX.

THE CAMPAIGN ABOUT MUKDEN

The Commander-in-Chief Arrives—His Journey from St. Petersburg—Japanese Movement Hidden—The Affair at Vagenfuchu—A Cossack Charge—Alexieff and Kouropatkin Fail to Agree—Mikado's Soldiers Worthy of Praise—Chinese Bandits.

THE advance of the Japanese field forces to the banks of the Yalu and the reports of landing upon Manchurian territory shifted the center of interest still further northward and westward. The various centers of interest of the land movements have been in order of progression, Chemulpo and Seoul, Chinampo and Pingyang, Anju, Chong-ju, and, lastly, the Yalu. Then the area of interest shifted across the great plain, at the edge of which lay historic Mukden, from which General Kouropatkin had been directing the Russian preparations, Liaoyang, Haichong, and other Chinese towns of varying importance. All this ground was fought over by the Japanese troops during the China-Japanese War of 1894-5, so that it is of extreme interest to follow the movements of that campaign.

The Japanese Routes in 1894.

The chief route then taken by the Japanese was from Antung through Siuyen to Haichong, south of Liaoyang. In the campaign of 1894-5 the Japanese held these hills against a great host of Chinese. To reach this position the Japanese third division set out from Antung on December 3, 1894, and crossed the intervening mountains by way of Siuyen and Si-mu-cheng, reaching Haichong in ten days. The roads then were frozen hard; the sloppy conditions at present prevailing would probably prevent such a record being again repeated. General Katsura, who later became Prime Minister, had at the same time a force operating on his right at Fengwangchang in the direction of the Motien pass.

General Kouropatkin reached Mukden, the base of future opera-

tions against the invading Japanese army, on Friday, March 25. An account of his journey thither from St. Petersburg along the Great Siberian railway, which lasted some fourteen days, may be of interest. All along the route he was greeted with the most marked enthusiasm, as the Russians firmly believe in his ability and that his presence in command of the Manchurian army will go a long way towards the eventual success of the Russian arms in the campaign which is now about to begin.

Goodbye to St. Petersburg and Moscow.

He left St. Petersburg at 6 p. m. on Saturday, March 12. Previous to starting he was presented by the Czar with a magnificent iron-grey charger, a thoroughbred from his Majesty's own stables. General Kouropatkin received a most hearty send-off from thousands of spectators, many of whom presented him wth ikons and other holy relics. He reached Moscow early on Monday morning and left the same evening. His departure from Moscow station will long be remembered by those who witnessed it. The platforms were crowded, and so indeed were all the streets in the neighborhood of the station. The general, who wore the Order of St. George, recently presented to him by the Czar, was accompanied by his staff and Colonel Gavrielitz, who was in charge of the new armor train. This train, which was to form the headquarters of the general during the forthcoming operations in Manchuria, consisted only of three carriages—one for his own personal use, one for the use of the staff, whilst the remaining coach was used as a dining-car. Both the engine and carriages were bullet-proof, and the train was the work of a Russian firm of engineers at Moscow. It was modelled on the same plan as the armor trains which were used in South Africa. On the platform to bid farewell to the general were collected all the civil and military dignitaries of the town, including the governor of Moscow.

A Godspeed.

An interesting feature of the occasion was the presentation by Prince Trubetzki to General Kouropatkin of a white standard which

bore the inscription, "God be with you," and "The Lord preserves His Own," whilst the words, "To the Commander of the Manchurian Army, Adjutant-General Kouropatkin," were engraved on the woodwork. The prince made a short speech as follows: "Alexis Nicholievich, all Moscow is assembled this evening to bid you farewell; you carry with you our prayers and best wishes for your success. Without doubt the enemy you are about to encounter is no mean foe, but they will not prevail against the might of Russia. We gladly entrust to you our forces in the Far East, to you who on so many occasions have made your name famous in the annals of war. We are confident that you will lead our troops to victory, and in bidding you farewell we commend you to God's protection." The speech was received with tremendous applause, and shouts of "Kouropatkin" and cheers for his brave army resounded on all sides. In replying to the prince's speech the general spoke as follows: "Russia has passed through far greater trials than those which she is to-day encountering, but in the end she has always emerged victorious. Without minimizing our difficulties or disparaging our foes, surely we may trust that in this war success will attend our arms. There is already a large force in the Far East, but should it prove insufficient our resources are large, and we are confident of ultimate success. We will spare neither blood nor money, all must be sacrificed for the Emperor and our Fatherland. I will convey your good wishes to the Manchurian army and will now only ask you to await with patience and fortitude the events of the next few months in the full assurance that Holy Russia will in this war, unsought by her, confirm her prestige in the eyes of the world." Twenty-five thousand roubles were then handed over to the general towards the funds for first aid to the wounded, and shortly afterwards the train left Moscow.

The Church's Blessing.

Toula was reached on the next day without incident except for the large crowds which collected at the station to bid the general godspeed. On reaching Zlatust, close by the Ural mountains, a special reception waited the general. It was taken by many as a good omen that for the

time of year the weather was warm and springlike and the sun was shining brightly. As before, thousands of people, peasantry and officials, pressed forward to catch a glimpse of the general. The clergy in the beautiful robes of the Greek Church were also assembled on the platform and a short religious service was held, the general kneeling to receive the blessing.

A magnificent ikon was presented him by the municipality and the general and his staff partook of bread and salt, which is a well-known national custom on important occasions. Before leaving, the inhabitants of the mountain district gave their offering—a sword of beautiful workmanship. The general seemed much touched by the gift and made a short and feeling speech, addressing his audience as "pravo-slavnie," a term seldom used towards subordinates in autocratic Russia.

In Asiatic Russia.

At Ufa an address was read to General Kouropatkin, and the citizens further presented him with an ornament of jewelry, a species of charm which is worn by many Russians round their necks. It would be tedious to individualize the various stations and halting places where the train touched, at all of which the general met with the same reception, and in many cases large sums of money were entrusted to him for the use of the sick and wounded.

At Irkutsk, where the general halted for a few hours, 12,000 roubles were given to hi mfor the same purpose. Here he was met by the governor-general of the province, Count Kutosov, who had a short conversation with him, and on the morning of the 20th the journey was continued to Lake Baikal, which was reached about mid-day. Here the general alighted, and he and his staff proceeded by sledge across Lake Baikal to Tankoi. The train was dragged more slowly across the lake, use being made of the rails which had been laid down over the ice. After leaving Tankoi, the journey was continued and Chita was reached on the 22d at 5 o'clock in the evening. The general arrived at Mukden early on the morning of the 25th. He at once proceeded to confer with

Admiral Alexieff, and later on left for Liao-yang, where he took over the formal command of the Manchurian army from General Linievich. A review of the troops was held soon after his arrival, the general making a close and careful inspection of all arms.

The Skirmish at Vagenfuchu.

On the morning of May 30 the Russian cavalry opened fire near the railroad station of Vagenfuchu, near Vafangow, against an advancing Japanese force, consisting of eight companies of infantry, eight squadrons of cavalry, and four machine guns. During the ensuing battle the Russians attacked a Japanese squadron on the enemy's left flank, after which they attacked the infantry, but retired under the fire of machine guns. The advance of the Japanese infantry on the Russian left flank was stopped by the fire of the latter's battery, which inflicted considerable loss on the enemy.

General Sakharoff, in his official account of the action, reported the Russian losses at seventeen men killed and twenty-three wounded. The Japanese losses were considerable. One squadron of the Thirteenth Japanese cavalry was almost annihilated in a hand-to-hand encounter, and another squadron, which came to its assistance, suffered great loss from the fire of the Russian frontier guards and riflemen.

The Russians began the battle at 8 o'clock in the morning, and after two hours and a half long range firing the Japanese, under Gen. Akkiama, prepared to charge and crush the force which had been harassing them for several days. In the meantime Gen. Samsonoff was approaching Vagenfuchu with a strong force of cavalry. It was a sight worth seeing, when at the word of command the Russian squadrons formed and rushed like a whirlwind across the terribly cut-up country, clearing away all obstacles, the batteries at the same time trotting along the frightful roads. Having passed the railroad station the troops came under the fire of the Japanese machine guns, but withdrew without suffering much loss.

Furious Charge by Cossacks.

The Fourth and Sixth companies of the Eighth Siberian Cossacks furiously charged the Japanese cavalry with lances, attacking both flanks. In a few minutes they had nearly cut the whole squadron into pieces. In some cases the lances pierced the riders through and wounded their horses. Some of the lances could not be withdrawn from the bodies into which they had entered.

The Japanese troops attempted to advance, but the Russian batteries opened fire, and soon the slope up which the enemy was advancing was covered with black spots, and the latter was forced to scatter and retire. Some of the Japanese cavalry were wonderfully dashing, charging with shouts upon the Russians, who met and scattered them. A Cossack who had lost his lance and sword wrenched a sword from a Japanese officer and cut off the latter's head.

A Russian who was wounded in the fight said that a cornet of the frontier guards was the hero of the fight. His sergeant was lying wounded and a Japanese officer was about to ride over him when the cornet unhorsed the Japanese, mounted the latter's horse, and placed the wounded man on his own charger. The Japanese cavalry engaged was the Thirteenth regiment. Their horses were splendid animals.

The Curtain Down on the War.

During the early days of June there was considerable talk of an important Russian move southward from Liaoyang. An unofficial telegram from Russian headquarters at Mukden, dated June 1, stated that the Russian commander-in-chief was in a position to begin offensive operations on an important scale. The lively skirmish at Vafangow apparently was the opening action by a force sent by Gen. Kouropatkin to relieve Port Arthur, or to create a diversion in favor of its garrison. This force consisted of 14,000 artillery, cavalry and infantry, under Gen. Stakelberg, who left Liaoyang, with Wanfangtien as his immediate objective, probably for the purpose of attacking Gen. Oku's rear.

Meanwhile the Japanese operations between Kinchou and Port

Arthur were screened with the customary secrecy. Such few reports as came in reference to their doings since the battle at Nanshan hill were based on rumor or supposition. It was assumed, from unofficial reports of the stream of troops the Japanese were still sending out, that Gen. Oku would be given an overwhelming force to enable him to act independently of Gen. Kuroki, who also was believed to be receiving a considerable proportion of reinforcement.

Troops Leave Japan Daily.

Although over 200,000 men, more than 400 guns, thousands of horses and wagons, and tons of supplies left Japan during March, April and May, there was not the slightest sign of a reduction in the rate of the exodus. Transports left the western port daily, each carrying an average of 1,000 men.

There was every indication that this rate could be maintained for months. The distances comparatively were so short that the number of transports required was not large, while the available troops, including the reserves, were far from exhausted. The work went on without a hitch. Every detachment took its own quota of guns, ammunition and stores.

Mines Around Liaoyang.

Meanwhile the Russians completed eleven fortresses at Liaoyang and laid mines within a radius of 5,000 feet from the town. Gen. Kouropatkin's strategy aimed at checking by every means the Japanese approach to Liaoyang and northward to Mukden.

The Chinese army, at Admiral Alexieff's request, engaged to stop the constant activity of the bandits against the Russians. The Russians withdrew all Cossack outposts west of the Liao river, owing to the hostility of the bandits, which, it is alleged, embraced the design to cut the railway north of Mukden.

It was stated at this time that the taking of Kinchou and the march of the Japanese on Port Arthur increased the misunderstanding between Viceroy Alexieff and Gen. Kouropatkin. The former, who had

never seen active service, desired Gen. Kouropatkin to march his army to the relief of Port Arthur, but Kouropatkin insisted he should wait for reinforcements. As a consequence there was a discussion between them when they met at Mukden.

The Leaders Disagree.

Alexieff insisted on the necessity of saving Port Arthur so as to keep a base for the fleet and obviate the fatal blow its capture would inflict on Russian prestige. He pointed out that after the way in which the Japanese had taken Kinchou there was no guaranteeing they would not sacrifice an enormous number of men to take Port Arthur, so the Russian armies, therefore, should go to its relief. On the other hand, Gen. Kouropatkin argued that the Russian forces at Liaoyang were not strong enough for a forward movement, having Kuroki in his front and the Japanese army under General Oku between him and Port Arthur.

Meanwhile every effort on the part of the Russians to communicate with the southern part of the Liaotung peninsula resulted in failure. The Japanese were in control of all avenues of communication and they allowed no messages to pass.

A Russian officer of high rank, speaking of General Kouropatkin at this time, said:

"He is awakening to the fact that the Japanese are worthy of praise. He declares that their recent operations prove them to be among the greatest strategists in the world, and to this must be added great daring, capacity for work and ability to stand punishment. The general did not believe this before, but now it has been demonstrated."

Facts About the Chunchuses.

The Chinese bandits, mention of whom has just been made, are the curse of Manchuria. These Chunchuses—the word is a corruption of the Chinese "Hung Hutzu" (Red Beards)—have preyed on Manchurian merchants for many years, deriving their living from gold-washing and occasional raids, together with a system known as brigand

insurance. The suppression of these brigands has been one of the great policies of Russian administration; but, strange to say, great divergence of opinion exists as to its real value.

A celebrated writer, who knows the country well, says that in all the principal towns offices existed where the carters or bean boat skippers could purchase immunity, the outward and visible sign of which consisted of a small triangular flag, which insured the carrier, cart, or boat against molestation or pillage. Though theoretically reprehensible, in practice this system worked admirably, as the premium paid was not at all prohibitive. The Russians, by their expeditions against the brigands, who galled them rather severely, split up these united bands into several lesser sections, and without diminishing their numbers destroyed in a great measure their organization, with the result that the carters and bean boat skippers, unable to purchase immunity —the flag of one section being unrecognized by the others—could no longer ply their trade with the same degree of safety or, in fact, any safety at all. Accordingly both produce and lightstuff were prevented from coming forward in the usual quantities, the entire trade of the province being disturbed. It will be readily seen that this in its turn helped to swell the ranks of the disorganized robbers as, cut off from the legitimate exercise of their calling, the impoverished agriculturists and carriers had to become the preyers or the prey, the majority throwing in their lot with the former as yielding better returns.

The same authority says: "It is dangerous to meddle with old-established customs in China, and many of the Chinese modes of procedure, theoretically incorrect though they be, are peculiarly adapted to the conditions prevailing. In the time of the China-Japan War these Hung Hutzu bands offered the Japanese the most obstinate resistance they met with in the province. It will be a matter for surprise if in the present war they do not materially contribute to the many difficulties with which the Russian forces will find themselves confronted in operating in an intensely inimical country."

CHAPTER XXX.

CHECKING THE RUSSIAN ADVANCE

An Out-post Battle—Capture of Saimatze—Advance of the Japanese Army—The Fighting around Siuyen—The Battle of Vafangow—Thrilling Description by Eye Witness—Mountain Passes Captured.

THE Russian force sent to the relief of Port Arthur was checked by a severe outpost fight twenty-five miles north of Kinchou. The Russians held their position, but the fact that their advance was checked proved that the Japanese held the roads south with superior numbers and that nothing less than an advance in force of General Kouropatkin's main army would serve to relieve the pressure on Port Arthur. The skirmish above recorded took place June 3, about eighteen miles from General Kouropatkin's headquarters at Fengwangcheng and east of Vafangow.

Details of the Fighting.

The Russian force consisted of an infantry regiment, some artillery, several companies of Cossacks, and a squad of dragoons. The enemy was discovered in the valley of Pwytsiantou. The Russians brought up a battery, opened fire, and cleared the Japanese out of the valley. Then the Russian guns were moved to a move favorable position. The Japanese, taking advantage of this, fired a few shells. The Russian losses were Colonel Sereda and seventeen men wounded. Both sides retained their positions.

The other fight was between Major General Mistchenko's Cossacks and the Japanese advance posts along the river Kolendzy, north of Takusan. It lasted from the evening of June 3 till late the following day.

A company of Cossacks then tried to cut off a detachment of

Japanese posted on the heights of Ladziapudsy, but the enemy brought up reinforcements and the Russians were reinforced by five companies of Cossacks.

Finally 3,000 Japanese were engaged, including artillery. The Cossacks repeatedly drove the enemy from their entrenchments. In one case the Japanese fled across the river, but returned with more reinforcements and the Russians drew off. The Cossacks' commander, Colonel Starkoff, was killed and two officers and nine men were wounded. The Cossacks carried the body of their commander to Siuyen.

The Russian Account.

Reporting on this skirmish, General Kouropatkin, in a dispatch to the war office, said:

"Our Cossacks were fired upon by Japanese infantry occupying a fortified position on the heights near of the village of Khotsiaputse, eighteen miles from Fengwangcheng.

"The Cossacks dismounted, and, with the aid of reinforcements and the fire of two guns, forced the Japanese to abandon their position and retire under cover of their supports. The engagement lasted from 1 p. m. until 6 p. m.

"On the Japanese side six companies took part, four having arrived as reinforcements. The intrenchments of the enemy were well constructed and perfectly masked.

"Our cavalry worked the guns admirably. Their fire contributed principally to our success. Our losses were the gallant Cossack Chief Starkoff killed, two officers slightly wounded and two bruised. The Japanese losses were not ascertained, except that they were larger than ours."

Another Version of the Battle.

According to one of the correspondents with the Russian army, the fight in the valley of Pwytsiantou took place in an immense amphitheatre in the hills. The Russian commander threw forward skirmshers to feel out the Japanese positions. The Cossacks and dragoons crept

forward, examining the steep hillsides, deep ravines, and dry water courses likely to protect Japanese ambuscades.

Finally, the Japanese fire on the crest of the hills located them and the assailants swarmed up almost inaccessible cliffs. The Japanese first kept in the shelter of the rocks, but the Russian fire searched them out and they flitted shadowlike across the rocks as the Cossacks continued to advance, while the dragoons cleared the valleys leading from the amphitheatre. The Japanese cavalry retreated, unwilling to risk a collision at close quarters.

The Russian line encircled one great hill on which was the principal Japanese position, and like a living ribbon, crept forward toward the summit. Colonel Sereda, led the advance until he fell wounded half way up the cliffs. The command devolved upon Lieutenant Colonel Chicsville, who continued the forward movement, clearing the Japanese from the heights.

In the meantime a Russian battery placed an accurate shrapnel fire among the hilltops, hastening the Japanese retreat. Two Japanese sharpshooters on the summit of a hill seriously annoyed the Russians at a critical period of the advance. An officer of Terileski's company scaled the rocks in the face of almost certain death and killed both the Japanese, returning unharmed.

The Capture of Saimatze.

On June 8th, General Kouropatkin, in a telegram to the Czar, admitted that his troops had been driven out of Saimatze with a loss of 100 men killed or wounded. This news attracted but little attention. All of official Russia had eyes and ears only for Port Arthur. It was generally believed that the Russian Gibraltar was making its last desperate fight against capture.

Few in St. Petersburg effected to believe that Port Arthur could either defend itself or be relieved.

General Kouropatkin again telegraphed to the Emperor as follows:

"A Japanese brigade attacked a Russian detachment occupying Saimatze on June 7. The Russians retired slowly because of the ene-

my's great superiority toward Fenchulin pass. Our losses were two officers wounded and 100 soldiers killed or wounded.

According to a Liaoyang dispatch the fight was a stubborn one. The Russian force was commanded by General Erhoff, who engaged the Japanese advance. The Russian infantry advanced steadily, pushing the Japanese from their position, but their attack gradually developed strength and the Russians, finding themselves in the presence of an overwhelming force, retired in good order. Their losses were three officers and about 100 men killed or wounded. Russian observers thought the Japanese lost more.

Movements of Japanese Armies.

In another dispatch General Kouropatkin gives the following details of the movements of the Japanese armies:

"Japanese troops are concentrating southward with a front extending more than ten miles from Pulantien to Fangtsiatung, in the valley of Tassakho.

"A Japanese force of two companies of infantry and a squadron of cavalry advanced on June 7, northward from Fengwangcheng, into the Tafanhung district, driving in the Cossack outposts. A detachment of chasseurs and a company of infantry hastened from Ualindi to aid the Cossacks. The Japanese abandoned their attack, having lost one officer and a noncommissioned officer captured and several men killed. We had no casualities."

Mikado's Army Begins Advance.

On June 9, the situation was as follows: Japanese armies were advancing in force on Liaoyang by four roads, the Russians retreating at all points. Japanese troops had occupied Siuyen, and were pursuing the Russians along the road to Haicheng. The Japanese had, as stated, occupied Saimatze, north of Fengwangcheng.

General Kuroki reported that a detachment of Japanese troops had routed a battalion of Russian infantry with two guns at Haimachi, the Japanese losing three men killed and twenty-four wounded. The Japan-

ese captured two officers and five men. The Russians left on the field twenty-three men dead or wounded and probably lost seventy men.

A Japanese detachment dispatched in the direction of Tungyuanpu repulsed sixty or seventy of the enemy's infantry at Linchatai and encountered six companies of Russian infantry and 300 cavalry at Chanchiahsi.

Drive the Russians Away.

After a two hours' engagement the Japanese drove the Russians off in the direction of Tungyuanpu. The Russian casualities were seventy or eighty men killed or wounded. The Japanese lost four men killed and sixteen men wounded.

On June 8, a Japanese detachment co-operating with another detachment from the force landed at Takushan, encountered a Russian force of 4,000 cavalry, with six guns, near Siuyen, and drove them back towards Kaichou, losing thirteen killed and two officers and twenty-eight men wounded.

A dispatch from Mukden, dated June 10, stated that General Kuroki had begun his forward movement, that the Japanese had occupied Siuyen and Russian scouts had discovered the Japanese in considerable force on the roads leading toward Haicheng and Liaoyang.

The Battle of Siuyen.

General Kouropatkin telegraphed to the Emperor the following details of the fighting around Siuyen:

"June 7 the Japanese slowly continued their march toward Siuyen by the Takushan and Fengwangcheng roads. Their advance guard did not approach nearer than five miles south and east of Siuyen. On the morning of June 8 a Japanese infantry brigade, two mountain batteries, and five squadrons of cavalry marched against Siuyen. About 11 o'clock the Japanese appeared before the town on the south side, but were checked by a successful fire from our batteries.

Cossacks Compelled to Retire.

"Japanese infantry then began advancing against the town from the east by the Fengwangcheng road, and came in contact with the

Cossacks holding the pass. After two hours' fighting the Cossacks were obliged to retire and our artillery opened fire along the pass, not allowing the Japanese to establish themselves.

"At this moment a Japanese mountain battery arrived and took a position to the south, but after firing a few rounds was silenced by our battery. A second Japanese battery did not succeed in getting into action, but was compelled to evacuate its position under the fire of our guns.

"In the course of the fight a flanking movement by several battalions of Japanese infantry was observed northeast of Siuyen, threatening our line of retreat. Consequently, our Cossacks gradually withdrew five miles from Siuyen, keeping up their fire from a battery on a dense column of the enemy at a range of 600 yards.

"The fire slackened about 5 in the afternoon. Among our losses were Cheremissineff, chief of Cossacks, Cornet Komarovski, and Lieutenant Colonel Possokhoff. To all appearances the Cossacks were engaged with troops of the Tenth division.

Tells of Saimatze Capture.

General Kouropatkin also sent the following additonal details of the fighting at Saimatze:

"On June 7 at 6 a. m. an outpost company on the Aivang road was attacked by the enmy. A detachment of chasseurs was sent as a reinforcement. More Japanese then appeared, one battalion with a mountain battery positioned before Saimatze.

"The chasseurs at first pressed the Japanese, inflicting losses and taking rifles and equipment from the killed, but the advance was checked by a severe fire. Reinforcements now joined the enemy, bringing up their strength to a brigade of infantry, two batteries of artillery, and three squadrons of cavalry. Thereupon the commander of our detachment ordered a retreat towards Fenchulin pass.

"The detachment withdrew slowly and in good order, holding successive positions. Our wounded included Captain Makharoff and Lieutenant Ronjitski. Both officers, however, remained in the ranks. About

100 men were killed and wounded. The enemy suffered severly. Accoutrements taken from the Japanese dead show that thy belonged to the Twelfth Division."

The Battle of Telissu.

On June 15, the Russian army under General Stackelberg attacked the Japanese forces under General Oku at Telissu or Vafangow and suffered a disastrous defeat. In his official report of the affair, the Japanese general said that the Russians began the fight with 25 battalions of infantry, 17 squadrons of cavalry, and 98 guns. They were reinforced several times, but the number of reinforcements was not known. Seven Russian officers and 300 men were taken prisoners. The Japanese casualities amounted to about 900 men, including eight officers killed and fourteen wounded. The total Russian losses were about 3,000.

Like Nanshan Hill.

There is a strong similarity between the battle of Nanshan Hill, also won by General Oku, and the one at Telissu. At Telissu the Japanese had to drive the Russians from the hills, while at Nanshan the enemy occupied one hill. The Russian position at Telissu was superior to that of the Japanese and equalized the advantage of the Japanese in having a larger force.

The Russian position extended from east to west and crossed the narrow valley through which run the Foochou river and the railway. From their positions on the right and left in the high hills which flank this valley General Oku drove the Russians down into the valley. The Japanese general carried first the enemy's right and then his left.

The fight at the left of his line was the most desperate of the day. The Russians held this position with desperate determination, and only fled when they were almost completely enveloped. The field had been disputed all day, and when the Japanese reached it 600 of the enemy's dead were found there.

How Jap Advance Began.

General Oku started from a line marked by Pulandien, and the Tassa river on Monday, June 13. His right column moved along the Tassa river, his main column along the railroad, and his left column by a road leading through Wuchiatun, Suchuankon, and Tahoai.

The Japanese cavalry started from Pitsewo over a road leading through Shunzo, and the small bodies of Russians opposing this advance were brushed away. The left column reached Nachialing on June 14, and the main, or middle, column, and the right column, keeping in touch with each other, reached a line between Chiachiatun and Tapingkou, seven and a half miles south of Telissu, the same day.

Opens With Artillery Duel.

The Russian forces then held a line between Tafangshen and Lungwangtiao. The entire Japanese line advanced and at 3 o'clock in the afternoon the Japanese artillery opened fire. The Russians had ninety-eight guns and they replied with spirit until darkness put an end to the artillery duel.

During the night of the 14th, under cover of darkness, the Japanese right column seized a hill between Tsongchiotun and Wengchiantung and the middle column occupied a hill to the west of Tapingkou.

Wednesday morning was foggy. The Japanese center's artillery opened at 5:30 a fierce duel with the Russian left center, north of the Foochou river. After fierce fighting the Russians were compelled to fall back slightly.

Japs Storm the Heights.

Meanwhile a detachment of infantry and artillery had been hastening since dawn along the Foochou road. At 9:30 o'clock this detachment occupied the heights west of the Japanese left center, and cooperating with it despite a galling cannonade from the Russian heights, charged through the defiles and scaled the hills, driving the Russians from their position at Tafangshen.

While this movement was being carried out the Russians fiercely

attacked the Japanese right. It was necessary to reinforce the Japanese right twice from the reserves.

In the meantime the Japanese right was suffering. The Russian left had been reinforced until their numbers were greater than the opposing Japanese. General Oku was twice forced to order up the infantry reserves.

The Russians made a series of desperate counter attacks, but when the situation was most critical the Japanese cavalry swung around the Russian left and struck the enemy on the flank.

At this time additional Russian reinforcements had arrived and the Russians held their position with dogged determination until their front and both flanks were under fire. They then broke and fled. The Japanese cavalry pursued the enemy for a short time, but the roughness of the country made it necessary soon to abandon the pursuit.

The Japanese left succeeded in ambushing 900 Russian infantrymen, who were discovered retiring toward Wuchiatun. They sent two companies of infantry and one battery of artillery to a hill east of Hongchiatun, and the Russians were completely trapped. Many of the enemy at this point were killed or wounded.

The Russians left 600 dead and wounded in front of the Japanese right. Russian prisoners report that the commander of their first division was seriously wounded and the commander of the first regiment killed. They also state that the commander of the army corps and of the second and third regiments were wounded.

Russian Story of the Battle.

Further details of the fighting showed that the Russian advance on the Japanese position, when it was hoped that General Stackelberg would drive back the Japanese army, was a most brilliant affair.

Soon after dawn the Japanese were discovered in strong force on a hill north of Dyaiwo. The infantry was well intrenched and supported by artillery.

Then the Russian left was thrown forward with reserves to clear the hill. They had a little over a mile of open country to cross, their only

cover being two small hills and two shallow valleys. The Japanese concentrated a deadly fire as soon as the Russians reached the open.

The Russians formed in open order and rushed from point to point, taking advantage of every depression in the ground, dropping and firing, then advancing again, until they gained a hill where they halted for a breathing space.

Deadly Japanese Shrapnel.

Over the hill the Japanese threw shrapnel which burst with deadly effect. Some squadrons had every officer killed and half their men wounded.

In spite of the terrible punishment inflicted, one regiment gained the hill where the Japanese were intrenched. The sixth company of the Third regiment got a rain of shells and shrapnel, concentrated there by the Japanese batteries.

The Japanese heavy guns silenced the artillery supporting the Russian attack. Thirteen Russian guns were smashed to atoms and their horses killed. A majority of their gunners were killed or wounded. The guns were useless to the Japanese, as they were literally shot to pieces before they were abandoned. The remainder of the artillery retired to Vafangow.

The Japanese at this moment delivered their main attack. A whole division was thrown against the Russian center and two divisions around the right flank.

The hard pressed right held out until 11 o'clock in the morning, when two regiments rushed to its assistance.

The whole force then advanced to within twenty paces of the Japanese intrenchments. They lost all their officers and half of the men. Captain Hasken was the last to fall. He was shot through the stomach.

The men lay panting under the Japanese trenches and out of range of their fire. The Japanese raised themselves over the trenches and fired, the Russians greeting the hail of shots with chaff, and the Japanese, angry at their inability to dislodge the attackers, threw stones at them.

Fighting Hand to Hand.

The battle then became a hand to hand fight with stones and gun butts, and the remainder of the Russians, taking advantage of this diversion, gained the shelter of a neighboring ravine, but were unable to hold the position in the face of the cheering and actually rolled back the Japanese advance, but General Nodzu poured in fresh troops, regiment after regiment. The Russian commander saw that he was being enveloped and rallied his reserves and retired in order.

A correspondent who was present at the battle of Vafangow described the fighting as follows:

"The stern, dogged fighting at the battle of Vafangow was like another Borodino. The roar of the machine guns and the boom of the cannon still ring in one's ears.

"Throughout the three days of combat the officers and men vied with each other in pluck and heroism. They have added a glorious page to Russia's military history.

"The enemy's advance originally included the Fifth, Eighth, and Eleventh divisions, twelve squadrons of cavalry, and splendid artillery.

Japs Had 200 Guns.

"About 200 guns were belching a continuous stream of shot and shell. Large reinforcements enabled them to turn the Russian flanks. A diversion on the right precipitated the battle in the morning of June 15.

"Major General Gerngross, who was wounded, commanded the left flank, and General Loutchkovsky commanded the center, including four battalions concealed in a small wood, whence they dealt death and destruction on the enemy. The Russian right was protected by Cossacks, dragoons, and Siberian rifles.

"While these big guns were thundering I made my way at about 11 o'clock a. m. to the Russian right flank and climbed a hill, whence I could view the whole field of battle.

"Then black lines of infantry like thread could be seen creeping

through tne verdure. Nearer, the slope of a hill was dotted by the gray shirts of the Russian riflemen. A brownish smoke overhung some of the batteries and others showed flashes of flame. The crackle of rifle fire was punctuated by the roar of guns. Occasionally I heard the hiss of a Japanese bullet.

"I saw reserves hurrying forward, the Cossacks galloping, followed by columns of infantry at the double. Suddenly they disappeared in an adjacent defile. The valley where the Russians had camped was emptied as if by magic. Rattling volleys were fired behind the screen of hills which concealed the fighting troops from view in that direction, the sound of the firing being the only evidence of the deadly struggle proceeding there. This continued for half an hour.

Cossacks Lead Russian Retreat.

"Suddenly a company of Cossacks appeared on the crest of a hill and began to descend. They were followed by infantry. The Japanese gunners promptly pursued them with shrapnel. Horses and men began falling.

"A moment of harrowing suspense was relieved by a thunderous shout of 'Hurrah!'

"It was from a couple of thousand of Russian troops just brought up by a train. They quickly jumped from the cars, fixed bayonets, and literally ran into the fight.

"Again the crackle of musketry under cover, during which the retiring Russian regiments formed up and moved off in complete order toward the railroad. While a long line of commissariat wagons, escorted by Cossacks, took to the road a battery of horse artillery stationed near the railroad banged away furiously as it covered the retreat. The Japanese shells were falling on the station buildings, from which train after train had moved.

Main Russian Army Withdraws.

"I descended the hill and just succeeded in jumping on the footboard of the last car. Some of the Russian batteries on the left flank were

still firing. The main force then began slowly to retreat towards Vantsialin, thirty miles north of Vafangow, and at about 1 o'clock in the afternoon had accomplished its strategic mission. The battle of Vafangow had deflected a considerable Japanese force from Port Arthur.

"Many Russians have fallen, but a greater number of Japanese were killed. The Russian shells and bullets mowed them down like wheat. The whole valley was bestrewn with the corpses and the River Tassa ran red. But it was with Japanese more than with Russian blood."

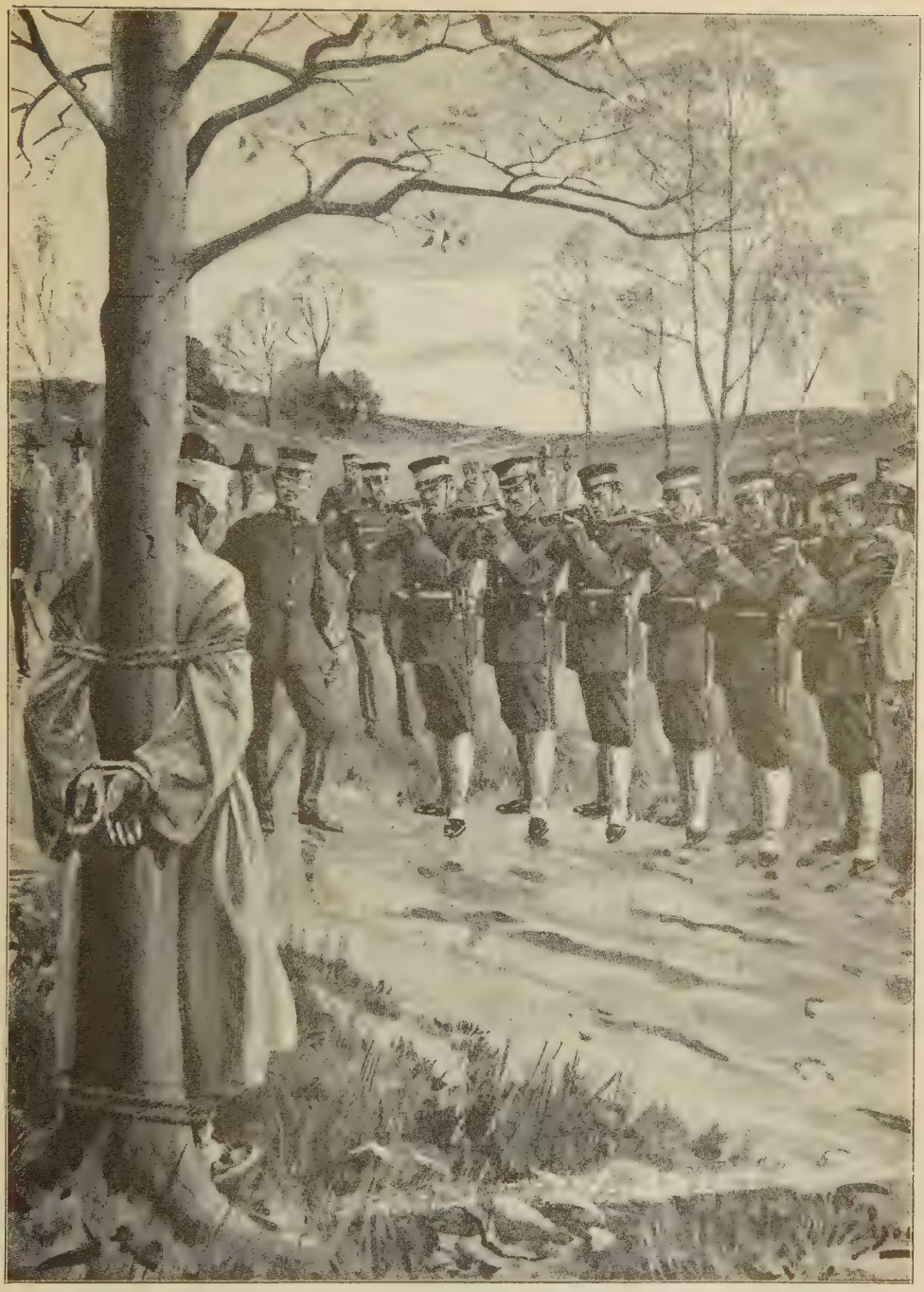
Russians Nearly Trapped.

According to military experts the forces of General Kouropatkin were now hopelessly entangled in the meshes of Japanese strategy. The General took the field in person to lead the main part of his troops against the army advancing upon Liaoyang from the south. On his front Kouropatkin faced twelve divisions of Japanese troops—144,000 men—on his left, another army occupied Kuandiansian with at least eighteen guns; this point is located northeast of Liaoyang. Kouropatkin was thus forced against his inclination to fight nearly all of his army against a superior force on his front and another on his flank. The announcement at Tokio that Field Marshal Oyama had been appointed to the supreme command of all the Japanese armies with General Kodama as his chief of staff, indicated that the months of preparation had ended and the real campaign was about to begin.

On June 23, General Kouropatkin notified the Emperor that the Japanese army was advancing on Kaichou in force and that the enemy had occupied Kuandiansian and Sapenhai, and that they held Senuchen, on the road to Kaichou, with more than a division of infantry, a brigade of artillery and 32 guns. The Japanese having occupied Siungyoshan were within 25 miles of Kaichou. General Kouropatkin's official report to the Czar, with dispatches from General Sakharoff, follows:

"A Japanese army from Kaichou is gradually advancing northward. General Kuroki's advance from Siuyen has been suspended, evidently to effect an alignment of the two armies.

"The strength of the enemy's vanguard is approximately a division



DEATH TO THE SPY

The Japanese found it necessary to establish martial law in Korea, and the above picture represents the execution of a Korean spy, who had given information to the Russians. Japan has as a rule, however, made her influence dominant throughout the country by peaceful measures. The people were won over until their coöperation was spontaneous.

RUSSIAN PRISONERS

The above very striking picture represents a detachment of Cossack prisoners guarded by their little Japanese captors. The desire of the Japanese to appear thoroughly Western was very evident in the care they took of their prisoners, and Russian captives were unstinted in their praise of the kindness with which they were treated.

THE JAPANESE POSITION ON THE YALU

On May 1st the Japanese troops stretched along the Yalu for seven miles and General Kuroki decided to hurl his forces at Tiger Hill, which would shelter his men from the withering Russian rifle fire. Swinging his men to the left he sent them to ford the river to the south of the hill; thence they crossed the plain and carried the intrenchments.

A RIVER OF BLOOD

At Wiju the Yalu is split into three streams by two islands. One mile above the islands the River Ai joins the Yalu. The above picture represents one of the skirmishes which took place just before the capture of Tiger Hill, and shows the soldiers of the Mikado crossing the ford of the Ai River in the face of a terrible Russian fire.

and several squadrons of cavalry, and the Siuyen force of nine squadrons, supported by a strong column of infantry toward the south.

"The enemy's position on June 19 and June 21 extended within seven miles southward to Senuchen along a line from the sea to the mountainous and difficult district east of the railway.

Japs Hold Mountain Passes.

"The enemy's advance lines are being strongly held by cavalry and a screen of infantry. The passes and defiles in the mountains east of the railway are also vigilantly guarded.

"A movement of strong Japanese mounted patrols with infantry supports was noted June 20 from five in the afternoon until dark. We had no losses in the firing which ensued, while the Japanese had several killed and wounded.

"An increase in the Japanese forces has been noticed south of Vanfiapudze and near the villages of Manzeapudze, Takziapudze, and Khakahei. Reinforcements are also reaching the Japanese at the furthest point of the road between Siuyen and Tanchi via Paiahaniou and Siakhotan.

Erecting Field Defense.

"The Japanese are directing field fortifications on the road from Siuyen to Kaichou. The enemy's outposts have occupied the pass between Pangrabsi and Paichang, on the northern road, nine and a half miles east of Siakhotan and the Chapan pass, seven and a half miles south of Siakhotan. On June 19 two Cossacks were wounded by Chinese ruffians.

"The Japanese have fortified Kuandiansian, mounting eighteen guns, with a strong screen. The enemy has occupied the village of Sapenhai, twenty-five miles northeast of Saimatze, and is firmly intrenched."

Tells of Jap Advance.

The general staff received the following dispatch from Lieutenant General Sakharoff under date of June 22:

"At 8 o'clock on the morning of June 21 the Japanese vanguard

resumed its advance against our outposts four miles south of Senuchen. The outposts retired slowly towards Senuchen and farther on in the direction of Kaichou.

"At noon a Japanese column consisting of nine squadrons of cavalry, a battery of artillery, and a considerable number of infantry, was observed advancing in the direction of Senuchen. Other strong columns of the enemy appeared and the Japanese occupied Senuchen towards evening with over a division of infantry, a brigade of cavalry, and thirty-two guns.

Japs Hold Two Passes.

"According to information received from our scouts and the inhabitants, the enemy over a division strong is concentrated southwards of Chapan pass near Changtaitien and Longliatien.

"The Japanese did not advance beyond Chapan pass in the direction of Tanchi and the enemy on the morning of the 22d had not occupied the pass between Paitsiapei and Panchingine on the Siuyenliahotang road.

Russians Nearly Surprised.

"Our scouts report that a large detachment of all arms advanced from Siuyen to Khranza on the morning of June 22. A battalion of the enemy taking advantage of a thick fog tried to surprise our vanguard near Vandiapudze, on the road from Siuyen to Haicheng.

"The movement was discovered in time and the Japanese received volleys from five companies of Russians. The enemy retired with some losses towards Siuyen. One Russian sharpshooter was wounded.

"The Japanese occupied Vafangtien, on the main road to Liaoyang, on the evening of June 19 with a battalion of infantry and a squadron of cavalry. A detachment of the same strength occupied Chandinju, in the valley of the Tsuo river, seven miles north of Fengwangcheng."

"The occupation of Siungyoshan by a Japanese detachment indicates that the connection between the enemy's armies is practically assured. Siungyoshan is half way between General Oku's and General Kuroki's positions, at Senuchen and Siuyen, respectively."

On July 1, came the news that the Japanese armies had captured Ta pass, northeast of Liaoyang; Motien pass and Fenshui pass, directly east. According to military observers the object of this movement on the part of the Japanese armies was to be able to cut the railroad north of Liaoyang and at the same time hold the Russian forces in check while the army advancing westward from Fenshui and Motien pass would be able to strike Liaoyang.

The details of the capture of Fenshui pass are as follows: On June 26, the Toyo detachment of the Japanese army attacked the eastern line of the Russian troops and from daylight to darkness the operations were carried on. As night came on the Japanese soldiers went into camp, but at midnight they resumed the attack, defeated the enemy and occupied the Russian position. On the following day the Russian forces, having been reinforced, attempted to take the position, but were again repulsed.

Fearful Sacrifice of Life.

The Marui detachment of the Japanese army, on the evening of the 26th, attacked the Russian rear and flank. On the morning of the 27th, the main body of the Japanese troops routed two battalions of the enemy's infantry and occupied Fenshui pass. The Asada detachment which had defeated 2,000 Russian infantry and cavalry on the evening of the 26th, remained under arms at the eastern foot of the pass until the following morning, when the Russian artillery, having been silenced, they stormed and captured the enemy's position. The Japanese casualties were 1,170 killed and wounded; the Russian loss was considerably less owing to the fact of their strongly intrenched positions.

On June 29, General Kouropatkin sent the following dispatch to the Czar:

"Towards 8 o'clock in the morning of June 27, our troops, having dislodged the enemy's advance guard, composed of cavalry and infantry, occupied the station of Senuchen, but at 9 o'clock it was discovered that a brigade of the enemy's infantry was advancing in front, while other columns were turning our detachment's left flank.

"The town of Senuchen, which is surrounded by walls, was also occupied by the Japanese. Consequently at 11 o'clock our troops slowly withdrew.

Officers Lost in Reconnoissance.

"A reconnoissance carried out on the road from Siakhotung to Erltatan and Khanza revealed the presence of six companies of the enemy's infantry and two squadrons of cavalry at Mayaratsa, three miles southeast of Siakhotung. In his reconnoissance Captain Vassillioff, Lieutenant Makaroff, and five Cossacks were wounded. Makaroff succumbed.

"There was some skirmishing June 25 between the enemy and our outposts at Samiarlkau and Wangtsiafangching, five miles west of Samiarlkau.

"At 4 in the morning, June 26, a detachment of the enemy, nearly an infantry brigade, with two batteries, occupied Santiao, firing on our vanposts occupying Black Mount, south of Siakhotung. Our three companies firmly held their ground until reinforced. At 6 a. m. a battery of Cossacks and a mounted mountain battery took up a position and opened fire on the front and flank of a Japanese battery and dense columns of infantry which had appeared against our left.

Japs Lose a Skirmish.

"At 1 in the afternoon the Japanese began to retire, pressed by our troops, who had assumed the offensive and pursued the enemy as far as Santiao. Our losses were six soldiers killed, and two officers and thirty-three men wounded.

"The battle recommenced at Siakhotung at 6 in the morning. A Cossack battery and a mounted battery repeatedly pursued the enemy's infantry and silenced the Japanese batteries.

"A section of our infantry repulsed the Japanese on our right, we counter attacking; the fighting ceased at five. A section of the Eleventh horse battery, which participated in the fighting, astonished everybody by its gallantry in pushing on so far as the Shanhai pass, and holding

its own against eight of the enemy's guns until its ammunition was exhausted.

"Our losses have not been ascertained definitely, but they are reported not to exceed fifty men and twenty horses.

"A battalion and a squadron of the Japanese vanguard, June 26, operating north of the Siuyenkaichou road, occupied Cheliuangtien, four miles northeast of Siakhotung.

Japs Capture Ta Pass.

"A concentration, towards evening, of twenty-six Japanese battalions was observed near the village of Wangtsiaputse, on the road from Siuyen to Haicheng.

"From the morning of June 27 the Japanese developed a frontal attack against our troops in Ta Pass, simultaneously turning our right with at least a division of infantry and three field batteries. The fight lasted until 7:40 in the evening. In view of the enemy's great strength and the turning movement our troops retired slowly from the pass. The enemy did not advance. Our losses are undetermined, but are estimated at about 200.

"On June 26 the enemy continued to advance from Fenshui and Motien passes frontally and flanking. At least eight battalions and ten guns were concentrated against Motien pass.

"At 4 o'clock in the afternoon the enemy occupied Kautia pass, on the Liaoyang main road.

"Since June 25 the Japanese have been advancing their right, occupying Saimatsze the morning of June 26, three companies advancing beyond. At first they forced back the Cossacks, but subsequently the Japanese were repulsed."

CHAPTER XXXI.

RUSSIAN ARMY NEARLY TRAPPED

Objective Point of the Japanese Army—The Capture of Kaichou—Haicheng the Goal—A Sanguinary Conflict—Motien Pass—Official Reports of the Engagement—A Russian Rout—A Decisive Victory—Yangze Pass—Death of General Keller.

IN THE early days of July dispatches from the seat of war stated that the armies of the Czar and Mikado, almost within striking distance, were stalled in seas of mud. The rainy season had set in and there was only desultory fighting from time to time. General Kouropatkin was at Tatchekiao and the Japanese forces were at Senuchen and along the roads from Siuyen to Haicheng and Kaichou. Under date of July 7th a dispatch from Liaoyang reported considerable fighting in that neighborhood, and according to the views of the war correspondents at the front, the Japanese object was to cut off Mukden.

Japanese Activity Continuous.

On July 11, the following dispatch from St. Petersburg indicated persistent activity on the part of the Japanese:

"General Kouropatkin, according to private advices from the front, will not make a serious attempt to hold Tatchekiao, above Kaichou, midway between that place and Haicheng, and where the railroad connects with the branch from Newchwang.

"Developments of the Japanese strength on the Siuyen roads seem to be forcing a Russian concentration between Haicheng and Liaoyang, but preparations seem to be making to defend the former as long as possible.

"General Count Keller's force, which was a little southwest of Liaoyang, has apparently moved farther southward, to stay the advance of the Japanese direct from the road between Fengwangcheng and Haicheng."

"The pressure on the Russian left rear as it withdraws continues. There is now practically nothing in the way of Japanese occupation of Newchwang and the completion of the Japanese line across the head of the Liaotung peninsula. The fortification of the passes of the Fenshui range and the semi-circle eastward of Liaoyang is reported.

"With pressure on two sides, if the Japanese have any serious intentions of pushing home their advance in the direction of Mukden, General Kouropatkin's position would seem decidedly dangerous.

Opportunities for Flanking.

"Whether the Japanese operations north will be pressed in the face of the rainy season, which is not regarded as probable, the Japanese seem assured of the command of the mouth of the Liao river valley, which will give them a new base with two railroads, one direct to Mukden, and the other to the Sinminting river and the imperial high road. The Sinminting road opens vast possibilities for flanking if an advance is begun at the end of the rains.

"Severe fighting is not improbable north of Tatchekiao, but the belief is growing that Kouropatkin does not intend to accept a general engagement at this time, even if challenged.

Oku's Advance Continues.

"Meantime General Oku's advance continues. His main force, which the general staff believes to be almost 60,000 strong, was yesterday about five miles north of Kaichou. His skirmishers were about three miles further north. The Japanese cavalry is proceeding to Newchwang, and a heavy force of Japanese is converging upon Siadiamaf, halfway to Tatchekiao, on the Siuyen road. The sentiments of the general staff foreshadow an engagement at Haicheng."

Japs Pursue Russians.

On July 9, a Russian correspondent who arrived at Tatchekiao sent the following account of the capture of Kaichou with the Russian rearguard after a running fight from Kaichou:

"We evacuated Kaichou today, after a fight lasting throughout Friday. We made a short stand at Pintzan, seven miles north of Kaichou. The Japanese kept on our heels, and there were constant exchanges between the Russian and Japanese batteries. The Japanese advance stopped eight miles south of here. The fighting along the road was lively, but our losses were small.

"There had been preliminary skirmishing and maneuvering for position around Kaichou since July 5. On that day two companies were caught in the hills to the eastward and surrounded by six Japanese battalions. They cut their way out, however, and returned to Kaichou, bringing many wounded.

"On the morning of July 6 our scouts reported that a strong Japanese force was taking up a position in the hills to the southeast.

"Early in the morning of July 8 the hills to the southward and eastward of Kaichou were apparently deserted, but we were aware that the Japanese were ready to spring. We had destroyed the railway bridge south of the town and had a strong line of rifle pits along the bank of the river.

"It was a brilliant morning. The Japanese began to advance from the defiles, where they were concealed, and, taking cover behind thick trees and in the gardens south of the river, kept their batteries on the hilltops carefully masked.

Russians Are Outflanked.

"While the Japanese crept forward 100 yards, keeping up a fierce exchange with our riflemen, another column started to work around our left through a deep valley. The sound of a heavy rifle fire at the railway station told us that the column had struck our outposts. Then our battery behind the station opened fire and the advance in that direction was checked.

"We had a squadron of cavalry and a battalion of infantry across the river, and through the golden haze we could just see them maneuvering to meet the Japanese column, which they engaged fiercely. The Japanese finally rolled back.

Night Ends First Fight.

"In the meantime the Japanese cavalry on the extreme west tried to creep around the shore of the gulf of Liaotung, but our batteries headed off the cavalrymen and drove them in confusion. By noon the advance was checked at all points, though growing numbers of Japanese were seen gathering in the hills and their batteries threw an occasional shot.

"Both sides held their respective positions through the warm, starlit night. Japanese reserves were hurrying up and concentrating for a morning attack, but we had held out as long as advisable in the face of the growing number of the enemy, and quietly prepared to evacuate.

"The Japanese advance commenced at dawn, at first quietly and cautiously, and then with a rush thirty-five infantry companies hurled themselves across the river. They must have been surprised to find themselves unopposed and greeted only by the smoke of the warehouses which we had set on fire before retiring.

"Our batteries had got away long before the arrival of the Japanese, and were in a position north of the town, from which they greeted the enemy with a hail of shrapnel as he started to follow our retreat.

Day of Artillery Duels.

"The entire day was marked by a long series of artillery duels. The enemy's front covered the plain on both sides of the road and the defiles in the eastern hills. Wherever an advance movement appeared it was greeted by the bark of the quick firers and the drumming of the machine guns.

"There was little rifle fire. The Russian main column was already proceeding north and a few Cossacks were hovering in the rear supporting the batteries.

"At noon the Japanese artillery arrived and engaged the Cossack horse battery. The Russians made no attempt to seriously contest the ground, but retired to a fresh position, at the same time worrying the enemy."

General Kuroki's Advance.

After occupying Kaichou the Japanese army moved northward, with Haicheng as the probable goal. A correspondent with the Japanese army contributed the following description of General Kuroki's advance:

"The advance of the Japanese over a wide front has been a complete success. It at once deceived the enemy and filled him with paralyzing doubt as to the true direction of attack. We had evidence of this on our march towards Liaoyang. Positions which nature itself seemed to have designed for purposes of defense, and upon which infinite labor and skill had been expended, had been abandoned without a struggle.

"These bloodless victories themselves are a tribute to the strategy of the Japanese, and the secrecy and foresight which mark every movement of the great army now in the field.

Russians Abandon Trenches.

"Twelve miles south of Motienling, on the Pekin road, is a saddle-like hill which forms the watershed of the Tsaiho. The ridge runs like a reef across the northern edge of a long, narrow defile through which we have advanced.

"This strong position the Russians had made even more formidable by trenches with gun emplacements here and there. Here, if anywhere, we expected they would make a stand, but when we came to the watershed they were not visible. The trenches were empty and the guns gone.

"At Lienchenkwan, four miles further on, we found only traces of the camp which had been the headquarters of the Russians and the charred, blackened slope where they had burned their stores of forage and grain.

"But surely we should find the elusive enemy at Motienling—that famous heaven reaching pass about which military experts have written so much—but that, too, was deserted.

Motien Pass Not Defensible.

"On the whole, its abandonment was not surprising. The pass really is not defensible. Its position is forestalled by a mountain about 1,000 feet above the river valley, traversed by a steep winding path. The mountain is crowded with angles and dead ground on which large bodies of troops could lie in perfect security. The slopes were steep and there was no room for field fire. The Russians therefore had formed a correct estimate of the tactical features of the pass, and had not wasted their energies on defensive works.

"If the attack on our outpost yesterday was really an attempt to recover it, it must be accepted as an indication that General Kouropatkin suddenly has become alive to his danger and sought to retard our advance accordingly.

Russian Attack That Failed.

"The attack resembled, in some respects, the onslaught of the Boers at Wagon hill, outside of Ladysmith.

"Under cover of darkness two battalions approached the valley at the foot of the northern slope of the pass, which was occupied by a single battalion of Japanese. The defenders were taken by surprise, and the enemy secured a footing on the road at the head of the valley.

"At this point one company of Japanese became involved in a hand to hand fight. It then withdrew a little in order to secure a better field for fire. The second company, being reinforced, came through the woods and subjected the Russians to an enfilading fire, and the third company threw itself on the enemy.

A Fully Equipped Army.

"A desperate struggle ensued. One sergeant cut down an officer and two men before he fell, pierced by many bayonets.

"The fourth company occupied the ridge to the south, lest there should be another attack from the rear, but no such attack was delivered, and in time it joined the pursuit along the river when the Rus-

sians retreated. Only one battalion of the enemy came into action. It lost fifty-three killed and forty-seven wounded and prisoners.

"This gallant little fight exemplifies the state of things which European critics are apt to ignore—namely; that for the first time in the history of war the field has been taken by a fully equipped, scientific army, which would rather be exterminated to a man than admit defeat."

Battle of Motien Pass.

On July 17, Russian arms suffered a disaster at Motien pass, when General Keller attempted to surprise the Japanese forces with 20,000 men and fourteen guns at two o'clock in the morning and under cover of a dense fog. The sudden onslaught drove in the Japanese outposts but as soon as reinforcements arrived the Japanese gallantly advanced to the attack, and, after severe fighting, drove off the Russians and re-occupied the position. The Russians retired, their retreat being well covered. The fighting lasted until three o'clock in the afternoon, the Russians losing nearly 2,000 men killed and wounded.

Forces Considered Inadequate.

General Kouropatkin's report of the action follows:

"After the occupation by General Kuroki's army of the passes in the Fonshui mountain chain, our information concerning his forces and dispositons was in general inadequate. According to some reports his army had been reinforced and he had even extended his forces towards Saimatze. Other reports stated that a displacement of his troops had been made in the direction of Ta pass and Siuyen. There were even indications that Kuroki had transferred his headquarters from Tskhakhekan to Touinpu.

"On the strength of the information received and on the basis of reconnoissances which had been made the hypothesis was formed that the principal forces of the enemy were concentrated around Lianshankwan and that their advanced guards had been strengthened in the passes of Siaokao, Wafankwan, Sinkia, Lakho, and Papau, as well as at Sybel pass, two and a half miles north of the road and half the height of Siaokao pass.

Keller Ordered to Attack.

"On July 17, in order to determine the strength of the enemy, it was decided to advance against his position in the direction of Lianshankwan. Lieutenant General Count Keller had been instructed not to start with the object of capturing the pass, but to act according to the strength of the force that he would find opposed to him.

"The left column of the expeditionary force, consisting of three battalions, was dispatched towards Sybel pass. The center column, commanded by Major General Kashtalinsky, consisting of fourteen battalions, with twelve guns, was destined to attack Siaokao pass, the heights surmounted by the temple and Wafankwan pass.

"The right column, one battalion strong, was occupying points where the roads leading to Sinkia and Lakho passes cross, in order to cover the right flank of General Kashtalinsky's column. The general reserve was left at Ikhavuen, and a portion of the force occupied a position at that place.

Advance Begins at Night.

"At 10 p. m., July 16, the head of the column advanced from Ikhavuan. At 11 o'clock a battalion of the Second regiment dislodged a Japanese outpost at the point of the bayonet at the crossing of the Lakho and the Sinkia roads.

"The details of this engagement have not yet been verified, but its general course, according to telegraphic reports sent in by General Keller, was as follows:

"During the night the Japanese had evacuated Siaokao pass and the heights surmounted by the temple, leaving only outposts there. At dawn General Kashtalinsky's column occupied these passes, driving back the Japanese advance posts.

Positions Were Untenable.

"At 5:30 on the morning of July 17 the Japanese in considerable strength and with numerous guns occupied Wafankwan pass and the

mountainous bluffs to the south on the flank of General Kashtalinsky's column. From this position and from the crest of the mountains to the east of the heights surmounted by the temple the enemy directed a heavy rifle and artillery fire.

"General Kashtalinsky advanced to occupy the bluffs, sending forward at once one and then three battalions, but the attempt failed, notwithstanding the support given by the horse mountain battery, as our field guns could not be brought into action on account of the nature of the ground.

"At 8 a. m. General Keller, who was directing the fight around Ikhavuan, deemed it necessary to lend assistance to General Kashtalinsky's column by bringing up from the general reserve three battalions to the heights surmounted by the temple.

"In order to maintain the positions we had already occupied, it was necessary, owing to the enemy's pressure, to reinforce immediately with other reserves the troops in the fighting line, but these positions, owing to their situation, were untenable.

Keller Decides to Retreat.

"General Keller found the strength of the enemy so great compared with ours that he decided not to continue the fight and not to bring up either the special or the general reserves, especially in view of the fact that in case of his ultimately taking the offensive it would be necessary to attack without support of the field artillery.

"In consequence of this General Keller decided about 10:30 to withdraw his troops to the positions originally occupied in the Yangze pass. The troops retired slowly, step by step, and in perfect order, covered by the fire of a field battery, which had been brought into action.

Japs Take Up Pursuit.

"Towards midday an offensive movement by the enemy in the direction of the right flank of the Yangze pass position developed, and at the same time a Japanese mountain battery was brought into position

in the village of Tsoudiaputse, two and a half miles returned to Ikhavuan.

"After thirty-four shots had been fired from the third battery of the Third brigade, which held the saddle to the south of Yangze pass, the Japanese battery was finally reduced to silence.

"The fight ceased at 3 p. m. and the troops returned to Ikhavuan.

"The Japanese advance was stopped above the valley of the Iantakhe river at a position occupied and maintained by us.

"In consequence of a sleepless night and the heat of the day our troops were greatly fatigued, having been over fifteen hours on foot and fighting.

"Our losses have not yet been exactly ascertained, but General Keller reports that they exceed one thousand.

"The gallant Twenty-fourth regiment suffered most. General Keller especially mentions the activity, courage, and coolness shown by its commanding officers. Colonel Koschitz was severely wounded in the leg, but remained in the ranks until the end of the action."

Kuroki's Brief Report.

General Kuroki reported that on July 17, at 3 o'clock in the morning, in a dense fog, General Keller, with two divisions, assaulted Motien pass and the flanking positions. After stubborn fighting the Japanese repulsed the attack and pursued the Russians nearly to Tienshutien. General Kuroki also stated that four officers and fifty-nine men were killed and fifteen officers and 241 men wounded. In one company all the officers were either killed or wounded.

The enemy forced the outposts into Motien pass in their first attack and attempted to surround the Japanese left wing. It was only by stubborn resistance in the face of great odds that the Russians were forced to retire.

Jap Story of the Battle.

The Japanese guarded their positions about the pass with a company on outpost. These men resisted stubbornly the Russian advance

and awaited the arrival of reinforcements. When these arrived they joined in the general attack.

The outpost detachment stationed at Hsiamatang held this position all day long. It was largely outnumbered by the enemy and every commissioned and noncommissioned officer was wounded, as were a majority of the men. The attack on Motien pass began at 3 o'clock in the morning.

How the Attack Began.

The Russians engaged the outposts and the Japanese at once went into action. The Japanese artillery, posted on the heights to the northwest of Wufingkuan, opened on the enemy, and the Japanese outposts retired gradually.

The Russian cavalry galloped forward and deployed along the ridge to the west of the pass. Two hours later, at 5 o'clock, the entire Japanese line was engaged. The Russians were constantly receiving reinforcements and finally they had four regiments in action. They outnumbered the Japanese.

The Russians made vain endeavors to envelop the Japanese left.

At this point the Japanese occupied the summit of Motien mountain, and they resisted desperately the efforts of the enemy to dislodge them.

When the Russians finally retreated they were pursued by the entire Japanese line. Seven battalions of the enemy made a halt on the heights of Tawan and with four guns checked the Japanese pursuit.

Three Against One.

One company of Japanese soldiers reconnoitering from Hsuikailing encountered and engaged three battalions of Russians. It fought until reinforced by four companies, when the Russians were repulsed. The Japanese seized and held the heights west of Makumenza.

The attack on Hsiamatang began at 8 o'clock in the morning. A battalion of Russian infantry and a squadron of cavalry assaulted the Japanese company on outpost there. The Russians received reinforce-

A WOUNDED RUSSIAN SOLDIER

The Japanese hospital and medical departments were in every way thoroughly equipped and efficient. The army doctors of the Mikado removed the wounded from the field without regard to nationality. The above picture shows two Japanese physicians, assisted by two women nurses of the Red Cross Society, tenderly caring for a wounded soldier.

GENERAL STOESSEL AT PORT ARTHUR.

General Stoessel, whose gallant defense of Port Arthur excited the admiration of the world, was described as a tireless worker, a man of few words and a thorough disciplinarian. It was also said of him that he never slept, for when the beleaguered city was in darkness a light burned in his headquarters. Surrounded by an overwhelming force, with ammunition and food almost exhausted, he long refused to surrender.

FORTIFICATIONS AROUND PORT ARTHUR.

The forts surrounding Port Arthur were constructed at an enormous expense. They were armed with modern guns, strongly emplaced, and were extensively mined. Until May 26, when the Japanese army broke through the first line of defenses at Nanshan, there was another line of forts extending to Dalny. Then, one by one, the Japanese captured the fortifications, shown in the above relief map, gradually driving the brave Russian garrison into the main citadel.

ADMIRAL URIU,
The Hero of the Battle of Chemulpo.

ADMIRAL TOGO,
Commander of the Port Arthur Fleet.

FIELD MARSHAL OYAMA,
Commander-in-Chief of the Japanese Army.

GENERAL OKU,
Commander of the Second Japanese Army Corps.

GENERAL NODZU,
Commander of the Japanese Army Forming the Center.

ments until they were a regiment strong. The Japanese resisted doggedly. All their officers were either killed or wounded, but still the men fought on. The Japanese finally received reinforcements, and the Russians retired at 5 o'clock in the afternoon.

Attack Was Well Planned.

Commenting on the battle at Motien pass, Spenser Wilkinson, the noted correspondent, said:

"General Keller was trying to break the center of the long Japanese front—a good plan when the enemy's front is 120 miles long, as it seems to be in this case. A vigorous, successful Russian offensive move along the main road would render precarious the position of the whole Japanese right wing and might also compel the left wing to fall back toward Siuyen.

"General Kouropatkin's dispatch seems to treat the action as a reconnoissance in force. The Japanese have been holding the passes for the last three weeks, and though they have pushed their left forward through Kaichou there is as yet no sign on their part of a general advance.

Maintaining Its Position.

"By every plausible hypothesis, Kuroki's army in the mountains merely is keeping its position until the fall of Port Arthur gives it large reinforcements, and when every available battery and battalion can be made to co-operate, operations against Kouropatkin will begin, but if the Japanese field army is not yet ready to attack Kouropatkin he may take the initiative. That seems to be the meaning of the battle, or that the attack at some point or other soon will be repeated.

"There are, however, two great difficulties in Kouropatkin's way. The first is that the Japanese have proved at the Yalu, at Nanshan, and at Vafangow that they have tactical superiority. They are better artists at fighting than the Russians and are equally brave.

"Next, Kouropatkin's army is in awkward strategical position. It is strung out on a line from Tatchekiao to Mukden with its communications a prolongation of its front.

"If Kouropatkin could make a great left wheel and drive the Japanese left back on Fengwangcheng the Japanese army would be in a perilous situation, but the Japanese hold the mountains and the Russians the plain. Kouropatkin, therefore, does better to try and break the center, so as to compel their right wing to fall back on the upper Yalu and left wing on Takushan; but Kouropatkin's telegram, in which he seems to have been painfully surprised by the strength of the Japanese forces at the point where he tried to break through, hardly augurs well for his next attempt."

Russians Unmasked.

On July 18, General Kuroki advanced his forces with the object of capturing Kiaotung, otherwise Chowtow, a strong position on the Chi river, northwest of Motien pass and east of Anping. The advance unmasked the Russians, who retired northward along the Chi river, General Kuroki following.

Suddenly two Russian battalions with eight guns turned and vigorously attacked the Japanese vanguard, which was severely mauled, one company losing all its officers. Supports were rapidly forwarded and fighting continued obstinately.

In the course of the afternoon the whole Russian position was determined. It was on a height about 2,000 yards above the Chi river, which protected the Russian left flank, while lofty precipices shielded its right flank, the position only being approachable through a narrow defile.

Japs Attack at Midnight.

The fighting continued until nightfall, when the Japanese bivouacked. The Russians made two counter attacks, both of which were repulsed. The Japanese renewed the attack at midnght, the main body operating against the Russian center, while detachments were sent to watch the respective flanks. Artillery was posted in the valley and on the heights southward.

The engagement became general at dawn. The Russians directed the fire of thirty-two guns at their assailants, pouring in shell persist-

ently. The Japanese artillery responded and the gun duel lasted for four hours. Then the infantry advanced, and, by 3 o'clock in the afternoon, the Japanese flankers had scaled the height occupied by the Russian right, whereupon the main body was ordered to storm the center.

In doing this the Japanese lost severely from Russian rifle fire, although the artillery protected the movement to the utmost.

Russian Retreat a Rout.

The final charge, which was made at half past 5 o'clock, broke the Russians, whose retreat was already partly cut off, and their retirement soon became a rout. They fled to the north and east, leaving 131 dead and 300 rifles. The Japanese took forty-seven prisoners and several guns and occupied Kiaotung.

Prisoners taken estimate the Russian loss at 1,000. Their force comprised seven battalions of infantry and a regiment of Cossacks, in addition to the artillery.

The Japanese lost Major Hiraoka, who was the Japanese attaché witnessing the Boer war, fifty-four men killed, and eighteen officers, and 351 men wounded.

The Japanese also attacked on July 19 a battalion of infantry and 1,000 cavalry at Choshiapo, north of Shaotientse, and drove them across the Taitsze river, after four hours of fighting. The Japanese lost seventeen wounded.

In the meantime there were constant skirmishes in this region between Amur Cossacks and Japanese scouts. The Japanese made an unusually heavy attack on the Russian outpost at Tzyanchan, when 100 cavalry and 700 infantry rushed the camp and forced the Cossacks to retire. The following day, however, the Japanese retired and the Russians reoccupied the position.

Another Japanese Victory.

On July 17th a detachment of the Russian troops gave battle in the Sybel pass to a force of Japanese soldiers. The engagement resulted with the retirement of the Russians and the loss of over 200

killed and wounded. In another fight, on the Mukden road, on July 19th, several companies of dismounted Cossacks offered a strong resistance to the Japanese advance guards. As a result of several days' activity, the Japanese secured better strategic lines from their advance and the Russians lost their best defensive positions both on the Liaoyang and Mukden roads.

The Battle of Tatchekiao.

On July 23, the Japanese commenced to push forward from Kaichou and force the retirement of the Russian rear guard to Tatchekiao, while a simultaneous Japanese advance began from the valley of the Chi on the east apparently also directed against Yinkow, the port of Newchwang, by way of Tatchekiao. The fourteen hour fight at the latter place with heavy losses on both sides, the evacuation and partial destruction of Newchwang by the Russians and the heavy Japanese movement upon Liaoyang followed hard upon each other.

According to the official reports there was considerable hard fighting at Tatchekaio before the place was taken.

The army of General Oku, combined with what is known as the Takushan forces, attacked Tatchekiao Sunday night, July 24, and on Monday captured all the important topographical keys. The Russian forces consisted of five divisions.

In a daring night attack against a Russian force, estimated at five divisions with 100 guns, General Oku succeeded in driving the enemy from their strong line of defense south of Tatchekiao.

Advancing on Sunday, General Oku found a superior force confronting him, and that a heavy artillery fire from the enemy was checking his men. He thereupon decided to hold the positions he then held and to attempt a night surprise. This was successful, the Japanese troops hustling the Russians into retreat to Tatchekiao. The Japanese had only 800 casualties. No estimates of the Russian losses are given.

Takushan Army in Reserve.

The Takushan army did not participate in this fight, it being located to the east of Tatchekiao. Moving to the northwest, this Takushan

force fought and won a separate action on Friday, July 22, at Panling, losing thirty-one men.

The Japanese began the advance against the Russian positions south of Tatchekiao on Saturday, July 23. On this date the vanguard occupied positions in the vicinity of Chulchiatun, to the southeast of Tatchekiao, developing the position and strength of the enemy. The Russian line was through the hills south of Tatchekiao, extending almost due east and west of the railroad. The position of the enemy was fortified. The strongest point was at Taiping mountain, to the southwest of Tatchekiao, and here the heaviest force had assembled. The Russians had two battalions of artillery posted near Chatenganon, due south of Tatchekiao and ahead of the main line.

Russian Batteries Active.

In the afternoon the Russian batteries, posted in various positions on the heights, opened with vigor, shelling the advancing Japanese line. The strength of the Russians gradually developed during the day and General Oku estimated it at five divisions and 100 guns. The Russian fire prevented a general advance and determined General Oku to decide to await the advance of darkness to deliver a night assault.

Two divisions of Russians occupied the Saicheng road, and Gen. Oku took the precautionary measure of engaging this force with artillery. The Russians replied with artillery and the duel lasted until darkness.

Suddenly at 10 o'clock Sunday night the entire Japanese right was hurled against the first Russian position east and west of Taiping mountain and easily captured it. At midnight the second position was attacked and by daylight the Japanese occupied the eminence to the east of Chuichiatun. The Russians were in retreat toward Tatchekiao. At 7 o'clock Monday morning the Japanese seized Chenyshishan without resistance and pursued the Russian force toward Tatchekiao.

Kouropatkin Sends More Details.

General Kouropatkin supplemented his own dispatches about the battle at Tatchekiao with the report of Lieutenant General Zarouvaieff,

who stated that his attempt to take the offensive against the Japanese right flank failed, the Russians losing heavily. He ascertained after the fight that eighteen Russian battalions had been engaged with at least two Japanese divisions, supported by an overwhelming number of batteries. The report added:

"In these circumstances I did not think it advisable to resume the battle on the following day. I resolved to retreat north. The losses have not yet been ascertained, but it is estimated there have been about twenty officers and 600 men killed and wounded. Colonel Auspensky of the Tomsk regiment was severely wounded.

Praises His Soldiers.

"I must testify to the remarkable firmness of the troops of my command in this difficult action, which lasted fifteen hours. The Siberian regiments particularly distinguished themselves by unwavering endurance. They had to meet the main attack. They did not yield much ground despite the enormous numerical superiority of the enemy and repeated attacks on our center, where the fighting on four occasions was conducted at close quarters with the bayonet, which the Japanese could not withstand."

Japanese Threatening Haicheng.

A telegram from General Kouropatkin was received at St. Petersburg, on July 27, confirming the occupation of Tatchekiao by the Japanese July 25 and adding that a Japanese division had moved on Haicheng.

General Stackelberg's and General Zarouvaieff's corps were at Haicheng, but the rear guard of the Russian army was half way between Haicheng and Tatchekiao. The Japanese, it was then believed, probably were halting, as usual with them after each advance, to recuperate and intrench.

Two Japanese divisions were nearing Sinouchen, which bore the same relation to Haicheng as Tangchi did to Tatchekiao. These forces were also stopping and throwing up earthworks eight miles southeast

of Sinouchen, which was strongly held by the Russians. Skirmishers from either side were within speaking distance.

The Japanese continued to menace Liaoyang's communications by concentrating troops at Sikseyan, but no further advance was made towards Liaoyang or Mukden.

Russians Retreat to Haicheng.

After the battle of Tatchekiao, as stated, the Russian troops retreated to Haicheng. A dispatch from Newchwang stated that for several days there had been heavy fighting in the marshes south of Haicheng, during the gradual retreat of the Muscovite army. That the Russian general staff considered the situation serious is indicated in the following statement from St. Petersburg:

"The enveloping movement of the three Japanese armies of Generals Kuroki, Nodzu, and Oku around General Kouropatkin's position appears to be almost complete, and the extended line of the Japanese seems to be the only drawback to concerted action. It is realized here that the Russian general must now either fight or withdraw the whole army northward. He is being closely pressed at Haicheng."

The Russians Amazed.

A Russ special from Liaoyang said the mobility of the Japanese was wonderful. At Tatchekiao they made a feint to the east and let fall the main blow from the south. The Japanese losses are accounted for by their having attacked a fortified place defended by artillery.

Officers were astounded at the dexterity and cleverness of Kuroki, who, in spite of the absence of roads, seemed able to focus his troops at any point at any moment.

Nemirovich Daschenko, a famous correspondent at the front, wrote: "It is under discouraging circumstances that our forces have to fight. They have the knowledge now that the Japanese have better artillery and are better prepared in every way. Good as our rifles may be, those of the enemy are better. We have little mountain artillery; the Japanese have masses of it, and move it about with ease from place to

place. The secret manner in which the enemy moves about is marvelous. We never know on what side they are going to attack. Their cavalry, which we mocked in the early part of the war, scampers all over the country."

Japanese Armies Renew Fight.

On August 1, the Czar received the following dispatch, dated July 31, from General Kouropatkin: "Three Japanese armies have renewed offensive operations on our southern front. Our rear guard made an obstinate defense until the appearance of considerably superior forces of the enemy and then gradually retired in the direction of Haicheng. A detachment near Sinoucheng, fifteen miles southeast of Haicheng, successfully withstood the enemy until in the afternoon.

"The attack was directed against our right flank, which from its position at Kanhua pass inflicted great losses on the Japanese.

Russian Right Flank Turned.

"The efforts of the Takushan army and General Oku's army today are being mainly directed to cutting our communications between Sinoucheng and Haicheng, their operations starting from a line traversing Yanshukan, Tapuntse and Liaohantse. On our eastern front the Japanese began the offensive this morning against our Ikhavuen position, the enemy's main concentration being against its right flank which was turned.

"The enemy is also acting on the offensive between Liaoyang and Saimatze, almost due north of Fenhuangcheng, against our troops posted at Houtsiatse, twenty-five miles from Liaoyang.

"Intelligence has been received of a considerable number of Japanese landing off Yinkow under the cover of several warships."

A further dispatch from General Kouropatkin to the Emperor said:

"All our positions were retained at Sinoucheng when the fighting ceased at 6:45 p. m., July 31, but I have not yet received reports of the operation on our extreme right flank.

"We retained all our positions held by our eastern force at Yangze

pass. General Keller, commanding, had chosen these as the point from which to watch the fight. A battery near him was exposed to heavier fire than any other and he was mortally wounded at 3 o'clock this afternoon. He died twenty minutes later."

General Kouropatkin also reported the retirement of the Russian vanguard on the south front, a short distance in the direction of Haicheng.

After determined fighting near the village of Sangchengtse, the Japanese apparently concentrated considerable forces on the Saimatze side of Liaoyang.

Report of Keller's Death Confirmed.

The report of Lieutenant General Count Keller's death was later confirmed. He was killed while resisting the preliminary attack of General Kuroki's army on the Yangze pass, thirty miles east of Liaoyang. The General was standing near a battery which was subjected to a terrific fire, when a shell burst close to him and he fell, mortally wounded, dying twenty minutes later.

General Keller was the first high Russian military commander to lose his life in this war. General Zassalitch resumed the command of the First Siberian army corps.

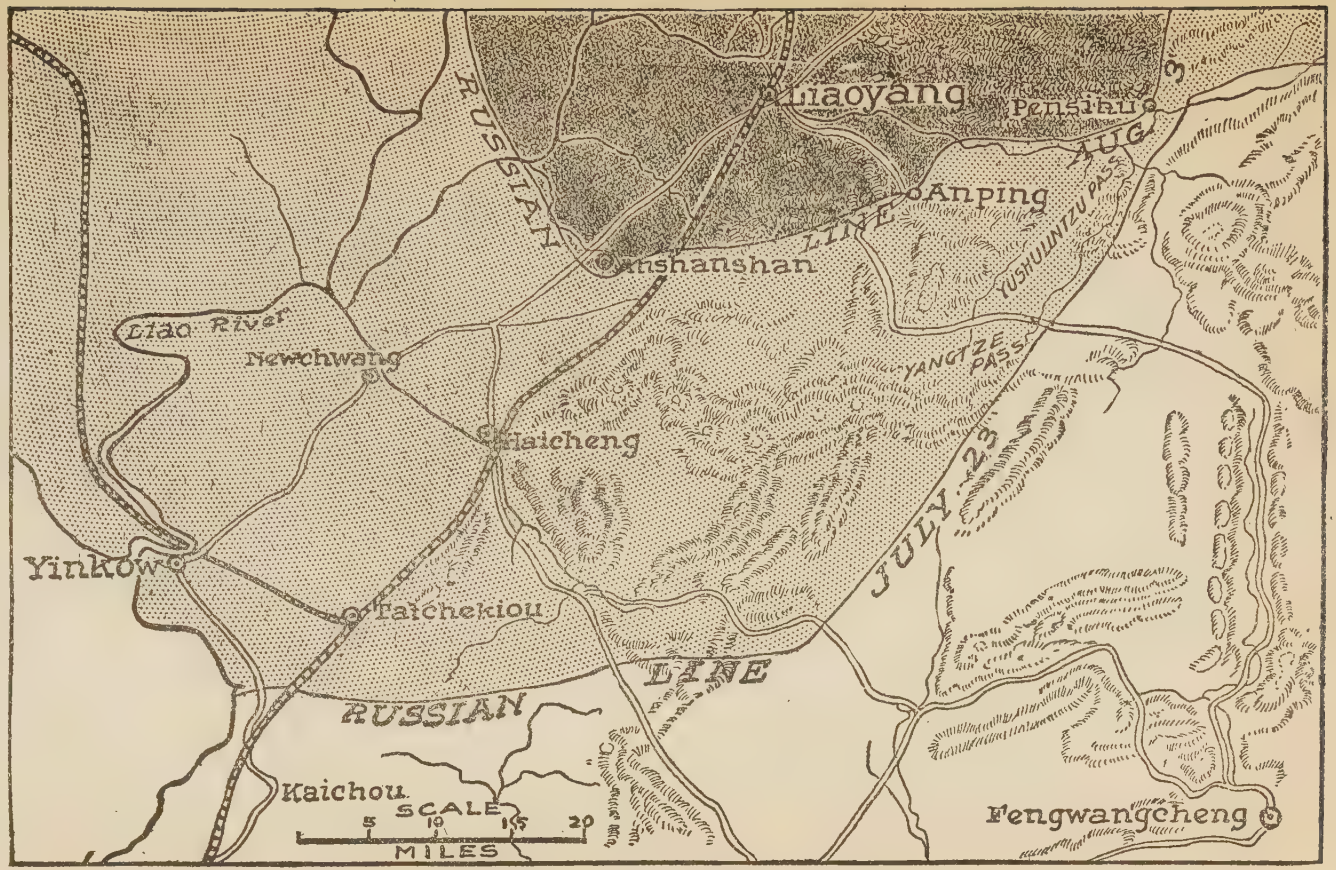
The loss of General Keller is deeply felt in court circles. He was a personal favorite of the Emperor. His sister, Countess Kleimmicha, is one of the leaders of St. Petersburg society.

Lieutenant General Count Keller at the opening of the war was in command of the Second Siberian army division. He was 54 years old and resigned the Governorship of Ekaterinoslaff in order to go to the front. General Keller took part in the three campaigns of the Russo-Turkish war. In 1887 he commanded the Imperial Rifle regiment and later was director of the corps of imperial pages, by which Keller came in contact with the members of the imperial family, with whom he was in great favor.

General Keller was considered to be the possessor of cool judgment and to be a fine strategist. Though a strict disciplinarian Keller was a

kind and careful officer and popular with his men. His only decoration was the cross of the military order of St. George, which he wore on the breast of his tunic. He sustained two reverses at the hands of the Japanese—July 4 and July 17—being repulsed in attacks on the Motien pass.

On August 2 it was reported that in consequence of furious fighting the Russians were compelled to evacuate Haicheng; this was later confirmed by General Kouropatkin in an official telegram to the czar. A clear idea of the brilliant operations of the Japanese army from July 23 to August 3 may be obtained from the map on the following page. After occupying all the strategic points from Siuyen to Kaichou, the Mikado's troops forced the Russian line northward to Liaoyang. The abandonment of the latter place and the retreat of the Muscovite army to Mukden naturally followed.



FORCING BACK THE RUSSIAN ARMY.

On August 3 the Russian army was drawn up on the line of a semicircle whose center was at Liaoyang, shown by the dark tint in the above picture; the Japanese line was parallel and close to the enemy's. The outer edge of the lighter tint shows the Russian front on July 23. By a series of brilliant maneuvers, the Mikado's army had, in the ten days following the capture of Kaichou and other strategic points, forced Kouropatkin to retreat fifty miles to the northward.

CHAPTER XXXII.

NAVAL ENGAGEMENTS

Admiral Skrydloff's Raid—The Vladivostok Squadron Escapes—Togo Encounters the Russian Fleet—Sinking a Russian Guardship—Bombardment of the West Coast of the Liaotung Peninsula—Tightening the Grip—The Doomed Fortress—Every Position Occupied—The Beginning of the End.

ON JUNE 13 a telegram was received from Admiral Skrydloff, commanding the Vladivostok squadron, stating that he had moved with the Vladivostok squadron towards Port Arthur. He arrived within thirty miles of the fortress, when he ran into a fog. It was asserted that Skrydloff found several Japanese torpedo boats and two battleships confronting him. The Japanese attacked fiercely and inflicted some damage. The Russians returned the fire, but as none of the Port Arthur ships appeared, as Admiral Skrydloff had hoped and expected, he returned to Vladivostok.

Story of an Eye-Witness.

A Russian correspondent, who witnessed the meeting between the Russian and Japanese squadrons, gave the following particulars:

"The Japanese trap for our cruisers was quite cleverly set. A squadron fully three times the strength of the Russians lay in wait in the strait of Korea. A strong flotilla of torpedo boats lay in wait at Takasaki, the northernmost point of Tsu island, with the intention of dashing out, catching the Russian cruisers between two fires, and forcing them to halt and to fight.

"The plan worked up to the point of meeting the Russian squadron, which, when it saw the superior force of the Japanese, rapidly retreated to the northward. The Japanese began a stern chase, firing at intervals, but their shells fell one and one-third miles short. At this juncture

the Japanese torpedo boats shot out from Takasaki, and for a short time it looked as though we had been badly trapped.

"We slipped through their cordon while they were attempting to draw in for a combined attack. Their quick firing guns opened without damaging the Russians in the slightest, while the heavy guns of the Russian cruisers sent two of the torpedo boats to the bottom. The other torpedo boats fled to the protection of their own squadron.

"The Japanese mistook their own retreating torpedo boats for Russian boats coming to attack them and opened a fusillade which lasted for three minutes. The Japanese torpedo boats spouted rockets and worked their signal lights desperately before the fire of their squadron ceased. We were unable to ascertain the damage which resulted.

"The reason why they did not pursue us farther is not known. It is certain that they were not nearly a match for the Russians in speed. The torpedo flotilla is still hovering around Gensan on the lookout for Admiral Kamimura's squadron."

The Japanese Admiral Fails.

When the Russian Vladivostok squadron escaped pursuit, and Vice Admiral Kamimura returned to his base at Tsu island there closed what promised to be one of the most spectacular incidents of the war.

To discover, to fight, and if possible to destroy three fast cruisers, one of them the most powerful fighting machine of its class in the world, and to do this in an open sea 700 miles long and 500 miles across, was the problem which confronted Kamimura.

Wake of the Russian Raid.

The Vladivostok ships left a broad path behind them in their dash into the Korean straits. On June 15 they appeared, without warning, in the narrowest part of the strait and sank three transports only forty miles from the coast of Japan. On June 16 they were off Oki island, on their way north.

On June 17, still going north, close to the Japanese coast, they stopped and searched the American bark James Johnson, off the west-

ern entrance of Tsugaru strait, 400 miles directly east of Vladivostok. On June 18 they disappeared off Cape Henashi, steaming north.

British naval experts declared Kamimura was guilty of a glaring error in not sending a strong fleet at full speed to Vladivostok as soon as he learned that the enemy was in the Korean straits. Kamimura was off Tsu island with his fleet on June 15, when the Russian ships appeared near Osima island. He began the pursuit the same day.

Russians Double Back.

The chase continued and the Japanese scouts were slowly overhauling the enemy when a heavy rain storm came on and the Russians changed their course immedately, thus foiling pursuit. They next appeared off Hokkaido and again changed their course to the southward till they were off Heanshisaki. They then evidently steered north when unobserved, though it was known that the Russians were off Oki island. Admiral Kamimura, who was out of touch with his base, kept searching for the Russians in the direction of Vladivostok and was thus aware of the Muscovite ruse.

The raid of the Russian Vladivostok squadron then apparently ended and transports resumed their regular trips between Japan, Korea, and the Liaotung peninsula.

The raid cost Japan three transports, the lives of nearly 1,000 men, and a large quantity of supplies and material for the railroads being constructed in Korea.

Either Battle or Suicide.

The raid of the Vladivostok squadron brought an unwarranted amount of criticism upon Vice Admiral Kamimura from the Japanese, and his failure to catch the Russians in the fog off Gensan on the coast of Korea, when the Japanese transport Kinshiu was sunk on April 26 with a loss of about 200 men, was recalled. Some of these even declared that if Vice Admiral Kamimura failed to catch the Russian vessels before they reached Vladivostok he should either resign from the navy or commit suicide.

The popular demand for his replacement rapidly grew, but the public was without information as to the nature of his orders or the plans of the naval campaign, and failed to make allowance for the limitation of conditions.

Vice Admiral Kamimura's squadron was lying off Tsu island when the raiding Russians reached Okino island. He immediately started in pursuit of the enemy, but rains obscured the sea and an electrical storm interfered with his system of wireless telegraphy. Vice Admiral Kamimura was a splendid officer, and the only possible indictment against him was one of lack of good luck.

Japanese Steamers Sunk.

The Japanese transport Izumi was returning to Moji on Wednesday, June 15, with a number of sick Japanese soldiers on board, and was surrounded by three Russian warships off Osima, near Tsushima strait. One hundred and eighty soldiers aboard were taken on board the Gromoboi. The Russian man-of-war had a number of other prisoners on board. These were lined up and compelled to witness the sinking of the Izumi. Later they saw the destruction of the transport Hitachi. They were then put in the hold until 3 o'clock in the afternoon of Thursday, June 16, when they were examined and twenty-two of them were put on a passing ship near Okino island. The Gromoboi then steamed northward.

Friday morning two small steamers were surrounded by the Russian squadron off Fukyiama, island of Yezo. After they were examined they were released. The Russians placed on board coolies from the transport Sado Maru, which had previously been shelled by the Russians.

No Fault of Kamimura.

Vice Admiral Kamimura made a long report on the movements of his fleet in searching for the Russian ships. The search lasted four days and the Japanese Admiral thought he was fortunate in having no accident, considering the thick weather. He regrets that the search had no results. The loss of the transports he said was due to the fact that

his fleet was too small to watch both the Russian fleets and convoy transports also.

Kamimura said he was informed by wireless telegraph that he was within forty miles of the Russians at the time the transports were destroyed, but the fog hid them and prevented him from hearing the guns. He could only guess the direction they had taken and wrongly guessed that they were making for Vladivostok.

Another Daring Raid.

On June 30, it was reported that the Russian squadron from Vladivostok was again at large, and making another daring raid into the Korean straits. The squadron, consisting of three cruisers, one torpedo destroyer, and nine torpedo boats, appeared off Gensan on the east coast of Korea. The torpedo boats entered Gensan harbor at 5:30 in the morning, shelled the settlement, and sunk the small steamer Koun, of 2,876 tons, and the small coasting schooner Seitsu.

The torpedo boats left the harbor at 7:20. A total of 200 shells was fired into the settlement, but no serious damage resulted. Two Korean soldiers were wounded.

Afterwards the squadron was reported off Anper, about fifteen miles to the east of Gensan, proceeding in a southeasterly direction. Its destination was not known.

The Squadron Appears Again.

Friday afternoon, July 1, the Russian warships were steaming between Iki island and Tsuishima, when they were sighted by Vice Admiral Kamimura, ten miles distant.

The Japanese fleet turned and gave chase, their torpedo squadron leading. The distance had been reduced by some two miles when darkness set in. Kamimura then ordered the torpedo boats to dash ahead, but before they were able to use their tubes they were subjected to a concentration of the searchlights on the Russian ships and a fierce fire for fifteen minutes. Suddenly the firing ceased and every light on the fleet was obscured. The Russian tactics succeeded and the fleet disappeared.

Togo's Great Victory.

On June 23d, the combined Japanese fleet attacked the enemy off Port Arthur.

"Early in the morning," said Admiral Togo, in his official report, "the fact that the battleships Peresviet, Poltava, and Sevastopol, with the cruisers Bayan, Pallada, Diana, Novik, and Askold, preceded by several mine dragging steamers, were emerging from the harbor entrance was reported to me by wireless telegraphy from the scouting ship.

"Then, according to arrangements previously made to provide against the enemy's egress, I hastened to the appointed rendezvous, sending my fourth and fourteenth destroyers flotillas to watch the enemy's movement.

"At 11 o'clock the battleships Cesarevitch, Retvizan, and Pobieda joined the dragging steamers, which commenced cruising about in the mines section, and attempted to make a fairway. We kept troubling them.

"At 3 o'clock p. m. my fourth and fourteenth flotillas engaged seven of the enemy's destroyers which were covering the dragging operations and defeated them. One of the Russian vessels, catching fire, fled into the harbor. The cruiser Novik came out to cover the other flotillas and joined the main fleet.

Russians Put to Sea.

"The enemy having cleared a fairway with the aid of their dragging steamers the Novik steamed out to sea. Our third fighting squadron keeping in contact drew the enemy southward on a southeasterly course.

"Our first squadron, hidden south of Sugan island, waited for the enemy and concentrated all its destroyers. At 6:15 p. m. our first squadron sighted the enemy eight miles northwest of Sugan island. The Cesarevitch was leading, with the Novik and the destroyers on its right.

"They steamed south. At 7:30 p. m. our distance from them was 14,000 yards. The enemy changed course slightly to the starboard and we followed them, trying to draw the enemy's van.

"At 8 p. m. the enemy altered their course to the north and we turned eight points and steamed in till sunset, at 8:20 p. m., when we parted eight points, and I ordered the torpedo craft to attack the enemy.

"At 9:30 p. m., when five miles distant from the harbor, the fourteenth torpedo flotilla made its first attack on the enemy's rear, the fifth flotilla following."

Unable to Enter Harbor.

"The enemy was thrown into disorder and could not make port, so they anchored at 10:30 p. m. in the roadstead, where we attacked them eight times before dawn. At 10:30 p. m. our sixteenth flotilla dashed from Shoosen point and launched two torpedoes into the bows of a battleship resembling the Peresviet, which immediately sank. We could ascertain no other results till morning, when we saw that one battleship was missing and two vessels of the Sevastopol and Diana class unable to use their engines. On the 24th the enemy's fleet entered the harbor, some being towed and others under their own steam, the last getting in at 4 o'clock p. m."

A Russian Guardship Sunk.

On the night of June 27 the Japanese torpedo boats approached Port Arthur and were discovered by the Russian picket ships. Despite the heavy fire from ships and forts and the blinding searchlights, the Japanese succeeded in torpedoing one of the Russian men-of-war. At the same time the Russian torpedo boat destroyer attacked the Japanese and the fire from the latter capsized one of the Russian boats. According to Admiral Togo, two officers and fifteen men were killed and wounded.

The twelfth torpedo boat flotilla, under the command of Commander Yamada, delivered the attack. The Japanese vessels were revealed

by the Russian searchlights and the shore forts opened a heavy fusillade on them.

The Russian guardship was surrounded and attacked by the Japanese, who saw this vessel sink amid huge volumes of water thrown up by heavy explosions.

Following this the Russian torpedo boat destroyers at once attacked the Japanese vessels, which responded to the onslaught. A Russian destroyer, while within the area lit up by the searchlights, was seen to explode, rise, fall back into the water sideways, and sink.

Operations of Togo's Fleet.

Admiral Togo devoted a considerable portion of the month of June to a bombardment of the west coast of the Liaotung peninsula. In an official report he stated that the captain of a foreign vessel that left Yinkow on June 8 reported that the recent Japanese bombardment in the vicinity of Kaiping, south of Newchwang, caused Russian forces to the number of 3,000, with twenty guns, to evacuate Yinkow. On the following day another detachment of the fleet bombarded the enemy for two hours near Yingchintsu and Tsantiakao, inflicting much damage upon them.

Another detachment of the Japanese fleet, according to Admiral Togo's report, discovered four Russian torpedo boat destroyers in Talienwan bay, near Shaopingtan, and drove them back to Port Arthur. Over seventy mines have been destroyed in Talienwan bay. Thirty floating mines have been found and destroyed. Some of these were drifting into Pechili gulf.

The Grip Tightens.

Meantime the Japanese grip was tightening on Port Arthur. In the fighting which occurred on July 4 for the possession of one of the hills northeast of Port Arthur, the Russians lost 100 men killed and fifty wounded.

The Japanese having occupied the second range of hills around Port Arthur began to march upon the Russian marine camp that commanded

the principal pass through the hills, which is directly back of Port Arthur. This camp was considered vital to the safety of the fortress, and it was guarded by 20,000 marines and sailors. In the Chinese-Japanese war the Japanese occupied this camp for seven days before they took possession of Port Arthur.

Port Arthur Harbor Unsafe.

The last junk to leave Port Arthur was towed out of the harbor and its passengers were compelled to remain below until it had cleared the harbor entrance. This measure was adopted to prevent the passengers from obtaining knowledge of conditions at the entrance to the harbor.

Chinese reported the entrance to the harbor of Port Arthur was unsafe for the passage of vessels. One Russian warship was slightly damaged while coming out recently as a result of striking a sunken wreck, and the two other warships collided in the entrance and had to undergo repairs.

Japs Nearer Port Arthur.

Chinese refugees from Port Arthur stated at this time that the Japanese forces had formed a complete cordon around the land side of the town, and that they were occupying all the commanding hills, including Wolf mountain, within a radius of seven miles of the fortifications.

The Chinese also said that two large warships were missing from the squadron which went out from Port Arthur on June 23, and that the Russian battleship Sevastopol was damaged on that day. The Japanese bombarded Port Arthur from the sea on June 30, but inflicted no damage to the town.

A trustworthy Chinaman reported that on July 5 one division of the Japanese army reached the northeast slope of the Takushan mountain, the summit of which was less than three miles from Port Arthur.

This division parted from another division of the army on the highway north of Port Arthur, after which it made its way through mountainous country. The other division continued along the main road toward the marine camp, to reach which it would have to pass over a

plain, but attacked by this division, in conjunction with that of Takushan mountain, the marine camp would not be tenable.

Japs Take Another Fort.

Fort No. 16, which is on the main line of defenses surrounding Port Arthur, was taken by the Japanese on July 6.

Continuing, the Chinaman declared that Russians in Port Arthur said that a Russian regiment which was out reconnoitering was driven back by the three Japanese regiments, who were in turn surrounded by two regiments of Cossacks and wiped out.

Japs Hide War Secrets.

Operations of paramount importance went on within the war zone during July, but the government successfully succeeded in veiling them in almost absolute secrecy. Since the occupation of Dalny the government officials were absolutely silent concerning conditions at Port Arthur. It was generally believed, however, that the Japanese army and navy were daily tightening their relentless grip on the besieged city, and that a final assault, followed by the fall of the fortress, was now only a matter of weeks.

The fleet of Admiral Togo was in motion day and night and was frequently engaged, but the forces and number of guns of the besiegers were secrets which probably would not be revealed until the final and decisive action. Fragmentary information from various sources, especially Chinese, reached Japan, but its publication was forbidden under a severe penalty.

Embargo on News Absolute.

Much concerning the siege of Port Arthur could be published without injury to the Japanese cause, but the general staff, resolved to avoid aiding St. Petersburg or Gen. Kouropatkin with a single shred of information, placed an absolute embargo on the transmission of all news.

No foreigner accompanied either the Japanese forces which were besieging Port Arthur, the army under Gen. Oku, or the army which

was landed at Takushan, and the newspaper correspondents and foreign attaches with Gen. Kuroki were made to remain within a circle having a radius of a little over half a mile.

Many false reports concerning the war operations were sent abroad. These the Japanese welcome as being just so much more chaff and sand thrown in the eyes of the enemy.

Tell of 800 Russian Dead.

A dispatch from Chefoo stated that on Tuesday, July 5, Chinese carriers brought into the town over 800 Russian dead, two of whom were high officials. It also said that a part of the Japanese force had advanced to within six miles of the besieged town, taking another eastern fort.

In the fighting which occurred on July 4 over the possession of one of the hills northeast of Port Arthur, the Russians lost 100 men killed and fifty men wounded. Fifty Chinese carriers were sent out to bring in the Russian dead and wounded.

Japs Seven Miles from Fortress.

On July 10 a fair wind brought a fleet of junks from Port Arthur, carrying both Chinese and Europeans. Reports which they brought of conditions at Port Arthur were contradictory, but they all said that a Japanese division from the northward was intrenching seven miles from the marine camp, while another division from the eastward was fighting continuously, and with the aid of the fleet was endeavoring to gain a position commanding the town and naval basin.

A European stated that the fighting to the eastward of Port Arthur had been heavy for several days, the Japanese ships along the shore shelling the Russian position in the hills. The smoke from the artillery on the hills around Port Arthur was seen almost continuously. Dead and wounded were being brought in at all hours, and many private houses were turned into hospitals.

Only skirmishes occurred to the northward. The main Japanese force was ten miles away, but Japanese scouts were seen is the vicinity

of the main camp, which commanded the principal pass to the hills, directly back of Port Arthur. On the nights of July 2, 3 and 4 the Japanese fleet bombarded the roads from the south of the town.

Togo Attacks Port Arthur.

On Friday night, July 8, during a storm, a flotilla of torpedo boats of Admiral Togo's fleet approached Port Arthur. On the following morning one of the torpedo boats found and attacked the Russian cruiser Askold. The Askold fired on the torpedo boat, two petty officers being severely wounded.

On Monday, July 11, Japanese torpedo boats approached the boom at the entrance of Port Arthur and attacked a Russian guardship of the Diana type with torpedoes.

The Russian cruisers Bayan, Diana, Pallada, and Novik, with two gunboats and seven destroyers, preceded by mine clearing steamers, made a sortie from Port Arthur on the morning of July 9 and reached a point between Senikaku and Lungwantan. They were attacked by Japanese torpedo boats and returned to Port Arthur, which they reentered at 4 o'clock in the afternoon.

Jap Cruisers Joined in Fight.

Admiral Togo's amplified report of the Russian sortie stated that the Japanese torpedo boat destroyer which signaled the enemy's presence was attacked. The Novik appeared to be crippled. The Bayan steamed ahead, engaging the Japanese destroyers, which retired, but four Japanese cruisers speedily arrived and assisted in the attack. They impeded the Russian steamers that were dragging for mines. One Russian warship, keeping inshore under the batteries, crept nearly to Lungwangtung, probably meaning to support a fort that was meeting a land attack. According to unofficial accounts, the boom at the entrance of Port Arthur is formed of logs, with their ends outward. They are joined by three cables. The Russians were able to anchor in deep water behind the boom.

On August 1 it was reported that the Japanese occupied every position surrounding the besieged fortress except Golden hill. It was also rumored Port Arthur had been taken, but the reports were generally traceable to Chinese refugees. There was very severe fighting in the immediate neighborhood of the fortress during the latter days of July. A dispatch from Chefoo, dated July 29, stated:

"A junk containing thirty refugees from Port Arthur, who are all foreigners of the better class, arrived here to-night from Port Arthur.

"The refugees report that exceedingly heavy fighting by land and by sea to the east and the northeast of Port Arthur occurred on Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday of this week, and they express the belief that a general assault was begun on Thursday.

"They say that this bombardment was the heaviest experienced since the beginning of the siege, and that the Russian forts made little reply to the Japanese fire.

Russians Short of Ammunition.

"Ammunition is said to be growing scarce, and the large fort guns are not often discharged. Attempts to manufacture ammunition in Port Arthur are reported to have been failures.

"All public buildings are being used for hospitals. The sick and wounded are being well cared for by volunteer nurses. The wounds made by the Japanese rifles are not dangerous except when vital spots are reached. Hundreds of badly wounded have quickly recovered from their wounds."

"Field Marshal Marquis Oyama, accompanied by his staff, left Port Dalny on Tuesday. He is conducting the Japanese operations in person."

CHAPTER XXXIII.

JAPANESE STRATEGY TRIUMPHS.

Victory at Anshanshan—Oku and Nodzu Join Forces—Beginning of the Nine Days Battle—General Kuroki Attempts to Surround the Russian Army—Terrific Artillery Fire—Hand to Hand Conflicts—Frightful Loss of Life—The Russian Line Forced Back—Liaoyang on Fire—Capture of the City—Kouropatkin Retreats to Mukden—Situation at Port Arthur.

THE movements of the Japanese armies, under Field Marshal Oyama, in the series of desperate battles which preceded the fall of Liaoyang, may be summarized as follows: On August 26th the army under General Oku going north met the Russian forces entrenched at Anshanshan and bombarded the position throughout the day, causing the Russians to retire. A juncture was then effected with the army under General Nodzu. On the same day General Kuroki advanced throughout the night and day over almost roadless mountains, pushing the army before him, but out of touch with the other Japanese forces.

The Chessboard of War.

August 27th saw the beginning of a nine days battle which was one of the most sanguinary engagements in history. The conflict commenced with an artillery duel between the Russian and Japanese forces, the latter moving slowly forward. In the meantime General Kuroki had made a rapid change of base from Anping to the eastern side of the railroad with the left wing ten miles north of Liaoyang. On the following day the armies under Oku and Nodzu continued the advance, pushing the Russians back and capturing the town of Anshanshan. General Kuroki attempted to cut the railroad, Kouropatkin's only way of escape, leaving a wide gap between himself and General Oku. On August 29th there was desultory fighting, the Russians taking advantage of the respite to fortify a position in the Shonshanpao hills. General Kuroki

continued fighting, making an effort to effect a movement surrounding the forces of General Kouropatkin.

On August 30th the armies of Oku and Nodzu working together, began an attack on the Russian position. There was continuous artillery firing throughout for two days, the Japanese forces moving up to within one thousand yards of the Russians. On September 1st, General Kuroki had reached a point three miles from the railroad with the right ready to start and the armies of Oku and Nodzu attacked the Russian center, taking a series of hills after desperate charges with heavy loss, forcing the Russians to evacuate toward Liaoyang. The captured hills proved to be the Russian's first line of defense and an attack of the Japanese was made on a second strong Russian position across the plain. The Japanese were repulsed with heavy loss. Kuroki's attack was made at sunset September 2nd, forcing the Russians to retire close to the defense at the walls of Liaoyang. General Kuroki failed in his attempt to surround the Russian army, being held at bay by General Kouropatkin's superior forces, while the latter successfully retreated. On September 3rd another combined attack in the morning by the Japanese on the Russian position, which was renewed in the afternoon and during the night, ended when the Russians began to withdraw from the town. On the following day fighting was renewed with comparatively small Russian resistance and the Japanese entered the city which late in the evening was evacuated finally by the Russians.

Greatest Artillery Duel in History.

The capture of Liaoyang was accomplished after nine days of desperate fighting, during which time, although the artillery arm carried out its part of one of the greatest duels the world has ever seen, there occurred some of the most desperate infantry charges of modern times. At dawn August 30th, three days after the capture of Anshanshan, the Japanese began an artillery attack upon the Russian's strongly fortified positions in the Shonshanpao hills, eight miles south of Liaoyang, the army under General Oku bringing 216 guns to bear upon the Russian fortifications.

This artillery duel lasted all day Aug. 30 without any appreciable result. At dawn on Aug. 31 the artillery fire was resumed and the Japanese drove a few Russian troops from an unfortified hill on the extreme right and then made an unsuccessful attempt to capture a fortified hill on the Russian left. During the morning the artillery duel was continued with increasing strength, the Russians answering shot for shot.

The Japanese guns were hidden under ripening corn eight feet high, and they were hardly visible to the enemy, who searched the corn fields with shrapnel. The fire caused heavy Japanese losses, but it failed to silence the guns. As the morning wore on the Japanese brought into action four fifteen centimeter guns, captured from the Russians at Nanshan hill, using in them against the Russian position ammunition taken from the enemy. These guns and their ammunition had been drawn by hand over the railroad for nearly 200 miles.

At 11 o'clock in the morning the fire of all the Japanese guns was concentrated on the trench at the end of a hill on the extreme left of the Russian position. For an hour shell and shrapnel were rained in this trench and the smoke of bursting shrapnel and the dust of exploding shells hid the position from sight. The artillery ceased at noon and the Japanese infantry then charged from an adjoining hill in the face of a heavy fire from the trench itself and a terrible crossfire from Russian artillery posted on another hill to the rear.

Charging the Russian Trenches.

Strong wire entanglements, military pits, and exploding mines failed to stop the advance, and in spite of the enormous casualties they took the trench at the point of the bayonet, driving the Russians back the length of the hill. As soon as the Japanese were in possession of this trench the Russians turned the fire of scores of guns against them in an effort to dislodge them. This heavy fire was maintained until nightfall, but did not drive the Japanese out.

Both sides kept up an artillery fire all through the night of Aug. 31, and at 3 o'clock in the morning of Sept. 1 the Japanese attacked the

center Russian position. This was a hill defended by three lines of intrenchments. The bottom of the hill was defended by wire entanglements, pits, and ditches.

Japanese engineers cut the entanglements after terrible slaughter, one detachment losing seventy-seven out of eighty men. The men of Nagoya, the flower of the second army, were assigned to charge this hill. They took the first trenches with a rush. In the second trench they met the enemy in a hand to hand fight, and went on to the top of the hill, treading on their own dead. The trench at the crest of the hill was taken after another hand to hand fight, the Russians being driven out at the point of the bayonet and with clubbed guns.

Dead in Each Other's Arms.

Thousands were killed in this charge and the trenches were filled with the mingled bodies of Japanese and Russians. In many cases attackers and defenders were found dead clutched in each other's arms. No more desperate charge was ever made.

The position apparently was unassailable and it should have been held by one man against twenty. The taking of this hill ended the defense of this line of positions, the Russian right evacuating after slight resistance.

At daylight of Sept. 1 the Japanese flag floated over the hills, and the Russians had retired in good order toward Liaoyang.

The Russian Defense Proves Strong.

In the meantime the Japanese left had tried flanking movements around the hills. The Russian forces stretched along the railroad embankment put up a strong defense, holding the Japanese steadily. It was believed that after the defeat in the hills the Russians retreated to the north through the city, but the outcome showed that the hills were only the first line of the defenses of Liaoyang. As the Japanese left advanced the night of Sept. 2 it discovered a strong Russian position on the plain, and at the same time it was learned that these defenses ran

across the plain for several miles. The left charged against the enemy, but they were driven back with heavy losses.

In the meanwhile the Japanese center and right had moved forward and a general charge was ordered at sunset. The Japanese guns bombarded the Russian defenses for one hour before the sun went down, and then the infantry charged. The left was successful in driving the Russians out of their position, but the right and center did not achieve as favorable a result. They forced the Russians, however, to retire to the defenses close to the walls of Liaoyang. Here another desperate stand was made, the Japanese pouring shell and shrapnel into the Russian position all day of Sept. 3, while the Russian batteries replied to this fire shot for shot. The Russian artillery was located in exceedingly well built emplacements, which afforded them complete protection.

Shortly after noon of Sept. 3 it was seen that the Russians had begun to burn the city. Great piles of stores near the railroad were set on fire and many buildings were destroyed. From behind the smoke of the burning buildings a constant fire was kept up from the batteries located near the railroad.

On the right the Russians manned the walls of the old Chinese city. The Japanese consequently directed their artillery fire against these walls, and 150 were wounded as a result. The Japanese gun fire also did much damage to the Russian troops who were intrenched at the railroad station.

Liaoyang Occupied by the Japanese.

During the night of Sept. 3 the last of the Russian forces withdrew from Liaoyang, and early in the morning of the 4th the Japanese occupied the town.

The fighting of these five days was the hardest of the war. The Russian positions in the hills south of Liaoyang were stronger than those at Nanshan hill, and more stubbornly defended. A wait of a few days would have allowed the Japanese to outflank these positions with comparatively small losses, but the desperate straits of the fourth and first Japanese armies to the north required that the Russian forces facing

the second army under Gen. Oku be disposed of instantly, in order to prevent the sending of reinforcements to the Russians opposing the other Japanese armies.

The Russian position on the plain was scored with trenches and fortifications. At one point the trenches occupied by the Russians were permanent works of immense strength, capable of protecting an entire brigade and absolutely unassailable. It was only by forcing back the Russian right by a desperate rush that the Japanese were able to make the Russians retire from this most excellent position. Fully five miles of covered and connecting trenches gave the Russians an opportunity to retire to the city with little loss.

The gun position on the plain was elaborately protected. There was a portable railroad from the city to the outer trenches for the transportation of ammunition and supplies.

General Kuroki's Flanking Movement.

A well known authority, in commenting upon the battle, said that if the Japanese had attempted to take Liaoyang by direct assault they would have failed, but the flanking movement of Kuroki who threatened to get behind the Russians, compelled them to evacuate the town. It is not an easy matter to surround and capture an army. General Kuroki marching from his bridges across the Taitze had twice as far to go to reach the railroad above Liaoyang as Kouropatkin, who was in the town and on the railroad. In addition, the Russian general had steam to increase his mobility, while General Kuroki must force his men and transports over muddy roads, so that small forces in good positions could delay the latter while there were no forces on the railroad to delay Kouropatkin. Notwithstanding this one failure in the Japanese plan, the victory of Liaoyang was complete and overwhelming.

General Kouropatkin Deposed.

The Japanese staff was disappointed over the escape of Kouropatkin, and Emperor Mutsuhito ordered Field Marshal Oyama to resume the offensive at once. The order was obeyed with startling rapidity and

Kuroki's army by a series of quick marches swung around the Russian forces, crossed the Hun river and advanced toward Mukden with 125,000 men. On September 25th the sensation of the day in Russian military circles was the publication of the imperial ukase in which the Czar announced that as Japan had shown such unexpected fighting powers, it was necessary for Russia to create a second army, the command of which he gave to General Grippenberg. This deposed Kouropatkin from his position of Commander-in-Chief, for in future he would rank equally with General Grippenberg. At the same time it was announced that Major-General Orloff, whom Kouropatkin blamed for the Russian defeat at Liaoyang, had been dismissed from the army. On September 25th it was reported that General Kuroki's army stretched from Bensihu to Bentsiaputze, and the armies of Oku and Nodzu from Yentai along the high road and railroad to Shahepu, sixteen miles south of Mukden, while a fourth army was going across the Da mountains. All these roads converge at Mukden. The armies of Oku and Nodzu were nearest Mukden, but their progress was slackened in order to permit Kuroki and the flanking columns time to come up; meanwhile the former had command of the railroad.

Japanese Operations Carefully Screened.

During the latter days of September, the campaign was shrouded in mystery. There were several skirmishes in the neighborhood of Da and Tie passes, but it was believed that they were merely offensive movements intended to mask more important operations. This constant shifting of the Japanese outposts hid the soldier movements behind from the Russians, while the Japanese censorship allowed no news to leak out. On September 29th it was reported that the main Russian army had withdrawn to the north of Mukden and the belief was growing that General Kouropatkin would make no effort to hold the town.

Stoessel's Defense of Port Arthur.

The gallant fighting of General Stoessel at Port Arthur will rank in history with Osman's defense of Plevna. Surrounded by an overwhelm-

ing force, with ammunition nearly exhausted, starvation staring him in the face, he obstinately refused to surrender. In the latter part of August, the Japanese took four outlying forts in front of Rihlingkikwang. They immediately strengthened these places and by September 15th had made them into almost impregnable fortifications. On September 17th the Russians made a sortie at the previously captured Fort Etse, but were driven back. On September 19th the Japanese took nine forts by direct assault, losing three thousand men. On the afternoon of the 20th, the Mikado's troops took two supplementary forts, which from their positions were deemed of great strategic importance. On September 26th it was believed that the crisis at Port Arthur was rapidly approaching and a speedy capture of the last line of defenses anticipated. The successful assaults of the 19th and 20th practically sealed the fate of the fortress, enabling the besiegers to mount heavy guns on the hills to the eastward, which commanded a view of the town and the harbor. On October 1st the Japanese possessed all the principal fortifications around Port Arthur except those of Golden hill, Kikwanshan and Liautishan, which the Russians held. The approach to the western port was still open, but while the movements of the Japanese were slow and cautious, owing to the fact that the ground was extensively mined, Japanese guns were searching every part of Port Arthur causing terrible havoc.

GENERAL KUROKI AT LIAOYANG.

General Kuroki was the first of the Japanese generals to take the field. He was born in the province of Satsuma in 1843, springing from the Samurai or warrior class, and was trained from infancy in lessons of courage, endurance and chivalry. General Kuroki was renowned throughout the war for daring and energy. He has been described as the ideal soldier in appearance, with a face full of great power.

IN THE STREETS OF LIAOYANG.

This picture illustrates an incident which took place in the walled town of Liaoyang just before it was evacuated by the Russian troops. The quarter shown above was held by a regiment of Siberian rifles; during the night a brigade of Japanese troops was pushed forward and, at sunrise, after a bloody struggle, the Czar's soldiers were defeated and driven out of the town. The street fight, while it lasted, was very fierce.

THE BATTLE OF YENTAI.

At the battle of Yentai, a considerable force of Japanese advanced to attack the central Russian position, which was a hill defended by three lines of intrenchments with barbed wire entanglements, pits and ditches. A force of Japanese engineers cut the entanglements after considerable slaughter, one detachment losing seventy-seven out of eighty men; this allowed the infantry to charge the hill which was taken at the point of the bayonet.

GENERAL KOUROPATKIN ON THE SHAKHE RIVER.

In the battles of Liaoyang and the Shakhe River, General Kouropatkin displayed the first qualification of a great general, which is to be able to conduct an orderly retreat. In the latter engagement, while he personally displayed desperate energy, he was calm and unmoved even when fortune was hardest against the Russians and succeeded in withdrawing his forces to a place of safety, in spite of overwhelming losses.

THE BATTLE ON THE SHAKHE RIVER.

Notwithstanding a terrible rainstorm on the morning of October 13th, the guns opened fire promptly at daylight, and the Japanese infantry gallantly advanced to attack the Russian trenches. Thousands were killed in this charge, the trenches being literally filled with the mingled bodies of Japanese and Russians. The latter fought desperately, but at length were compelled to retreat, which they did, fighting desperately. Nearly 60,000 Japanese and Russians were lost in this battle.

GENERAL BARON K NOGI.

THE LAST CHARGE AT PORT ARTHUR.

The final act in the siege of the Russian stronghold began on December 28, when the Japanese divisions were hurled against the northern forts. For five days without ceasing the assault was maintained and attack followed attack in unending succession. Fort after fort was taken by the Mikado's troops, with fearful loss of life on both sides. The above picture shows the capture of the fortifications on Sungshu mountain on December 31, which was followed by the fall of Panlung and Wantai forts, on January 1. While Tokio was cheering the news of these victories, came the tidings that General Stoessel had surrendered.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

YENTAI AND THE SHAKHE RIVER

Kouropatkin's Advance—His Defeat and Retreat—Valor of the Czar's Troops—Sixty Thousand Killed and Wounded—Every Foot of Ground Stubbornly Contested—The Storming of Lone Tree Hill—A Night Attack—The Russians Give No Quarter—Sickening Slaughter—The Japanese Victorious—A Lull in Hostilities—The World's Bloodiest Battles.

REPORTS of the Japanese generals covering the operations during the first ten days of October tell of minor engagements and the occupation of strategic positions by both armies. The movements appeared to be preparatory to a severe conflict, which both armies would endeavor to make decisive. Then the world was electrified by the announcement that General Kouropatkin had about-faced his army and was marching against the enemy. Oyama showed no desire to hold his outer positions, and the evacuation of Bentsiaputze gave color to the reports that the Japanese were retreating before the Russian forces.

The Russian Advance Checked.

Dispatches of October 11th told of a battle raging along an extended front from a central point north of Yentai westward across the railroad south of Bensihu, on the Taitse river. Field Marshal Oyama's attack was nicely timed to interrupt the strong turning movement that was threatening Liaoyang. Oku's army, on the west of the railroad, fought its way to a point twelve miles south of Mukden to another point a few miles still farther east. On the east General Kuroki delivered a flank attack which crumpled up the left wing of the Russian army, while Nodzu's forces succeeded in driving a wedge into the Russian center.

The following is the Russian account of Kouropatkin's advance, his defeat and retreat:

After seven days of the hardest kind of fighting the Russian army fell back on the Shakhe river and held a position on the north side of that stream. The fighting, which commenced shortly after noon October 9, had been in progress for seven days. On October 9 the Russians advanced to the southeast, crossing the Shakhe river, thence to Hamantung, twenty miles southeast of Mukden and ten miles north of Yentai. On the hills around Hamantung the Japanese had planted four batteries. Upon the advance of the Russians these batteries retired to the southward across a narrow valley, which runs east and west, and joined the main Japanese force on the hills beyond. In the fighting around Hamantung a few Japanese prisoners were taken.

Japs Retreat at First.

The Russians followed the Japanese across the valley, taking positions in the foothills, from which the artillery shelled the Japanese force, while the infantry advanced through the defiles. October 10 the artillery duel continued, the Russians advancing slowly. During the night the Japanese changed their positions, and at daylight enfiladed the trenches, pouring a terrific shrapnel fire on the infantry, composed of one regiment, only a remnant of which was left.

The Mikado's Troops Take the Offensive.

From this on the Japanese took the offensive the entire day of the eleventh, throwing shrapnel and shimose powder shells among the infantry and artillery. The Russians held tenaciously to their positions.

Early in the day the Japanese began to work around the Russian left and succeeded in dropping a few shells on the road and in the villages where the transport and reserves were gathered. The Japanese had the range of the road and village perfectly. They compelled the men and wagons to take to the fields. This shelling did little damage beyond disconcerting the men and horses.

Additional guns were sent forward to protect the left, while the batteries withdrew across the plains to the hills on the north side. This gave the Japanese possession of a high hill on the south side, from which

they shelled the valley through which the Russians had advanced during the evening. The Japanese apparently suffered greatly from the Russian fire.

The morning of the 12th found little change in the positions of the two armies, except that the Japanese had worked further around to the left. Probably the greatest artillery fight of the battle took place on October 12. Batteries were placed on every available hill, and at the same time regiment after regiment of infantry was poured into the plain by both sides, only to be thrown back, shattered and torn.

During the night a heavy rainstorm occurred, in the midst of which the artillery continued to boom, and at one point the Japanese infantry charged.

Fighting Hand to Hand.

They were met by Russian infantrymen in the darkness, which was lighted only by flashes of guns, the bursting of shells, and the streaks of lightning. The men fought hand to hand, the Japanese regiment being finally driven back.

The thunder and rain continued all the morning of the 13th, but, notwithstanding, the guns opened fire promptly at daylight. The Russians fought stubbornly, but retired slowly. The Japanese continued to threaten the Russian left. Toward the evening the Japanese opened with all their guns on the Russian positions, the shells dropping like hail in the field and on the hills.

The Russian Army Retires.

The morning of the 14th found the Russians with their backs to the Shakhe river, across which transports had been withdrawn during the night. Fighting continued from these positions all during the day of the 14th, while the Russian reinforcements took up positions on the hills to the north of the river. Another thunder storm broke shortly after noon, flooding the streams and turning the roads into seas, and by evening the main Russian force had withdrawn across the Shakhe river. The Japanese shells were dropping within a short distance of the river on the left.

The fighting recommenced at daylight, the boom of guns being distinctly heard in Mukden. The whole Russian army then slowly retired, and fighting every inch of the way. The result of the battle so far was that the Japanese army held a line practically the same as at the beginning, but fifteen miles further north.

Russian Troops Worn Out.

The Czar's troops behaved with the utmost valor. They repeatedly attacked impregnable positions, despite their terrible fatigue and the shortness of food. They were worn out. Human strength could not do more than they did. Every available man and gun was engaged.

The troops were pitifully mortified by their nonsuccess. Officers and men alike showed unyielding tenacity and sacrificed themselves ungrudgingly.

General Kouropatkin personally displayed desperate energy. More than once shrapnel fell about him as he moved to and fro, directing everything. He was unmoved even when fortune went hardest against the Russians.

The Russians fought as a matter of pride; Manchuria was forgotten. They felt that they could not stop; that they must win one battle.

The surface of the country was horrible for retreat. The concussion of the hundreds of guns caused heavy rain and thunder storms during the last three days, turning every valley into a quagmire, and every stream into a torrent.

Sixty Thousand Killed and Wounded.

With more than 10,000 dead left on the field of battle, the Russian casualties were estimated to be at least 60,000 in killed and wounded in the battle from October 10 to October 15, inclusive. Oku's army buried 2,000 Russian dead. Kuroki buried 4,500, with many unaccounted for. Nodzu buried 2,500. These figures do not include the killed on October 14 and 15. This exceeded the losses in the battle of Liaoyang, which aggregated 40,000 in killed and wounded on both sides.

Kouropatkin's army, shattered but still fighting desperately, stubbornly, valorously, slowly retreated, leaving thousands dead on the field of battle. The rear-guard near Shakhe covered the retreat, even taking the aggressive at times, and repeatedly hurling back the Japanese assaults.

The Struggle on Lone Tree Hill.

On the night of October 16, the Russians, after one of the most spectacular pieces of battle work, captured Lone Tree hill, at the extreme east of the line. They recaptured Shakhe station on the extreme west of the line and the village of Shanlandtzy, half way between Shakhe and Lone Tree hill.

The storming of Lone Tree hill for valor and slaughter will occupy a place by itself in military annals. Kouropatkin, under whose eye the assault was made, rechristened it Poutiloff hill, in honor of the man who led the attack at the head of the Second brigade of the East Siberian rifle division, and who was subsequently decorated on the field with the St. George's cross.

The hill is a precipitous, rocky height, and, although the Japanese had occupied it only a short time, they had thrown up strong defenses. The river running at its foot increased the difficulty of the task, but it was scaled and carried successfully against the unprecedented opposition of a Japanese division, 14,000 men, with many guns.

Lifted in the Air on Bayonets.

The Russian losses were terrible. The fighting on the crest of the hill was altogether with cold steel. The Russian officers, with swords aloft, leading the scaling column, were literally lifted in the air by the Japanese bayonets, and the Japanese then bayoneted the first of the Russian soldiers who piled in the trenches. All the dead in the trenches were bayoneted.

Nemirovitch Danchenko, the Russian war correspondent, describing the assault, says:

"The whole Russian artillery, at 5 o'clock in the morning, showered

the hill with projectiles, the bombardment lasting the entire day, yet the defenders remained at their posts.

"The sun was already declining when Kouropatkin gave the order to storm. Six regiments advanced, fording the river in the face of a murderous fire.

"The enemy determined to make us pay dearly for it. He poured a hail of gun and rifle fire on our advancing columns, but nothing could stop them. They reached the other side, clambered up, and at 11 o'clock at night the position was in our hands. I have just visited the scene of our triumph. The trenches are filled with dead Japanese and Russians clutched in a death embrace. The Japanese gunners died at their guns."

A Stubborn Contest.

On October 18 the Japanese left army was fighting its way north and east toward Mukden and the Russian right was throwing all the men it could muster across its path. Every foot of ground was being contested, and, while the main action lay along the west side of the railway, a few miles south of Mukden, the armies to the east of the railway were making every possible diversion. Positions were being taken and retaken and guns were changing hands almost hourly.

Russian Defeat Seemed Certain.

The greatest admiration was expressed for the tenacity displayed by General Kouropatkin in protecting his retreat, but nowhere was any idea entertained that the Russians' first decided success on the Shakhe river could change the broad character of their defeat, or have any effect beyond retarding slightly the eventual Japanese advance to Mukden, and probably to Harbin, since the Japanese appeared to be fully prepared for a winter campaign.

A Night Attack.

The Japanese often displayed a fondness for night attacks, which they organized cleverly. They would light a series of enormous campfires at false bivouacs and then stealthily creep up on the Russian sen-

tinels, who, peering into the darkness and blinded by the glare, cannot see the Japanese approaching, or they would take advantage of a rainstorm and try to surprise the Russians. One night they adopted both ruses, but ran into a hornets' nest. The night was inky black, rain was falling and a cold wind was blowing.

Ordered to Use the Bayonet.

"A fine night for the Japanese," every one said, and the Russians huddled in the trenches had strict orders given to them that if the expected but uninvited guests appeared not to fire but to meet them with the bayonet. It was so dark that a person could not see his hand before his face except vaguely. Through the rain, in the direction of the false campfires, all eyes were strained and ears listening intently.

The wind, which was as cold as ice and cut to the bones, was suddenly freighted with ominous sounds, an unmistakable squash in the mire and squirting of water under the tramp of hurrying feet, accompanied by the metallic rattle of arms.

Japanese Walk Into Trap.

The Russians stooped lower. The officers passed along another caution—under no circumstances to fire but to meet the Japanese with the bayonet. On they came. The Russians could already see the silhouettes of the Japanese and watched the approach of their victims with grim satisfaction, their only anxiety being lest some nervous soldier might fire and thus spoil the game. The Japanese came on, straining their eyes in the darkness, evidently believing that the Russians were not so close.

Awful Slaughter of Invaders.

When they were right under their feet, the Russians rose up as if out of the ground and, with a hurrah, wildly fell upon them with the bayonet. The front ranks of the Japanese broke, turned and smashed into the second line, throwing the whole force into disorder. Like a rabble, they tried to escape, but the Russians gave them no mercy, bayoneting them as they pursued. For a mile the work of slaughter

proceeded and few of the Japanese lived to carry back the tale. In the morning the ground was strewn with corpses.

The Battle Wears Itself Out.

On October 20 the big battle had practically worn itself out, leaving the two armies facing each other, with the Shakhe river as the dividing line. An exchange of artillery fire continued all day on October 18 and all day October 19, the Russian center advancing slightly each day, under a heavy shell fire. On the left the Russians were in a good position on a high hill overlooking the Shakhe river, which they held, despite an almost continuous bombardment and frequently infantry attacks, and Kouropatkin was confident that he could throw off the Japanese to the westward, thus leaving the way open to Port Arthur.

The World's Bloodiest Battles.

The Japanese ambassador to England once said that although poets, artists, skilled mechanics, musicians, sculptors, scientists and statesmen had fostered the peaceful arts and had zealously labored to advance the material welfare of Japan, his country was not recognized as civilized until the Yellow Sea and the soil of Manchuria had been reddened with the blood of her enemies and the lives of thousands of her youth had been sacrificed upon the altar of liberty. The following table shows how the "onward march of civilization" in other countries has been attended with the same fearful slaughter of human beings:

Battles.	Men Engaged.	Losses.
Waterloo	196,000	53,000
Sedan	400,000	28,000
Plevna	225,000	70,000
Chancellorsville	139,000	30,000
Chattanooga	110,000	15,000
Gettysburg	145,000	55,190
Wilderness	186,000	50,000
Koniggratz	510,000	53,000
Liaoyang	500,000	40,000
Shakhe River	496,000	60,000

CHAPTER XXXV.

FALL OF PORT ARTHUR

Beginning of the Siege—Russian Attempt to Relieve Port Arthur Fails—First Line of Forts Captured—Takushan Taken—Dash of the Russian Fleet—Awful Bloodshed at Banjusan and Panlung—Reckless Bravery of the Japanese—Japanese Resort to Sapping and Mining—Capture of 203 Meter Hill—A Flag of Truce—Loss of Life During the Siege—A Letter from General Stoessel.

ALTHOUGH the siege of Port Arthur began on February 8th, when Admiral Togo surprised the Russian fleet and torpedoed the battleships and cruisers, the campaign which resulted in the fall of the fortress commenced on May 5, when General Oku, with 65,000 men, landed on the Liaotung peninsula at Pitsewo, seventy-five miles northeast of Port Arthur. On the following day landing operations also began at Port Adams, Admiral Togo's fleet in the meantime distracting the attention of the Russians by the continued bombardment of Port Arthur.

Attempt to Relieve Port Arthur Fails.

The advance toward Port Arthur began about May 12th, and on May 26, after a five days' battle, the Japanese captured the walled city of Kinchou and took Nanshan Hill, after one of the most thrilling charges of the war. On May 31 the Japanese troops occupied Dalny and on the same day General Stackelberg, with 30,000 men, left Tatchekiao and attempted to relieve Port Arthur. General Oku dispatched a portion of his forces to meet the Russian general and on June 14, at Vafangow, Stackelberg was defeated, with a loss of 1,000 men and 14 guns.

The forces besieging Port Arthur continued to receive reinforcements from Port Adams, Pitsewo and Dalny, and during the last week in June the Japanese had gained several miles on the west coast of the peninsula and had captured two forts on the heights at Lounvantien, about eight miles northeast of Port Arthur. The capture of Lounvan-

tien was the signal for a series of desperate battles for positions still nearer the stronghold. About this time it was learned that General Nogi, who commanded the brigade at the capture of Port Arthur ten years before, was again in command of the siege operations.

On July 9, the Japanese suspended their advance and intrenched themselves in the positions they had occupied and devoted the following three weeks to bringing up heavy guns and ammunition. On July 26 Field Marshal Oyama, who had been appointed commander-in-chief of the Japanese forces in the field, left Dalny for the front and took active command of the siege operations, and the final preparations for the assault on the great fortress began. At this time the Japanese served notice of their purpose to take Port Arthur by storm, if it were not given up, but General Stoessel, the commander of the garrison, refused to surrender.

Whole Regiments Annihilated.

The capture of Green and Wolfe Hills followed, after which the Japanese turned their attention to Takushan, 845 feet high and only three miles from Port Arthur. On Monday morning, August 8, the Japanese attacked the main line of the Russian fortifications, their infantry making reckless bayonet charges, and the Russians replying in a similar manner. Steel to steel the conflicts took place and whole regiments were annihilated. At daylight on the morning of August 9 the Japanese concentrated their reserves and made a final attempt, sweeping the Russians back. Some idea of the awful carnage may be obtained from the fact that in one fortified position, out of a force of 200 men, only two survived. In spite of a brave sortie by the Russians, followed by fierce fighting at close quarters, in which the Czar's soldiers were assisted by the Russian fleet in the harbor, the Japanese held the position they had won. From the day the Japanese guns were mounted on Takushan, the doom of the fortress was sealed.

Then came the first and only attempt of the fleet to escape. August 10 Admiral Witthoeft, with his entire squadron, made a dash for the open sea, with orders not to return. The naval battle with Togo's fleet

followed. Five of the battleships, badly damaged, were compelled to return to Port Arthur. The Czarevitch crept into the German harbor at Kiauchau bay, a battered hulk, Admiral Witthoeft dead, and hundreds of his sailors dead and dying. The cruiser Askold managed to reach Shanghai, unfit for further service. The Diana got as far as the French port of Saigon. The Novik escaped and sailed clear around the islands of Japan, only to be overtaken and sunk on the shores of the island of Saghalien, within a day's steaming distance of Vladivostok. Four of the torpedo boats were sunk, and two reached Kiauchau bay. The others returned to Port Arthur.

A Noble Act of Sacrifice.

The Japanese land operations began in earnest on August 19, when the siege guns, which had been brought up and put in place, opened the first general bombardment of the whole line of Russian forts. The bombardment was followed by an infantry attack, a whole division advancing to attack the first line of trenches on Rihlung fort. They captured the trenches only to lose them again with heavy loss. On August 21 the Japanese batteries concentrated their fire on Banjusan and Keekwan forts, but despite the artillery support, the Japanese were driven back and the assault threatened to result in failure. While General Nogi was consulting with his generals concerning the operations, several companies of a regiment emerged from their trenches without special orders and charged up the slope to the broken wall of a trench around the crest of Banjusan fort. The Russians behind the wall and in the fort poured out a hail of rifle bullets and the machine and quick-firing guns belched forth on the intrepid Japanese. Twice the Japanese were forced back till the slope was covered with bodies, but a third attempt was made and a score of heroes reached the broken wall. The terrible fire of the Russians, however, started their retirement.

Suddenly a Japanese officer, regardless of the danger, stood up, called out an order, planted his regimental flag on the wall, and was immediately riddled with Russian bullets.

The effect on the Japanese of this sacrifice was instantaneous. The

retreating infantrymen stopped in their tracks, hesitated, and then charged back, fought like demons, jumped over the wall, charged the Russians with bayonets, and forced many of them up the glacis, over the ramparts, and into the fort. This fort the Japanese were unable to hold.

During the morning of August 22, the Japanese captured Panlung fort; and on the night of August 23 the Japanese center, with the right co-operating, attacked the heights northwest of Wantai and the north fort east of Keekwan mountain, but the troops were forced to abandon the attack on account of the heavy losses. Then there came an order for a general assault along the whole front, and for twenty minutes the whole Japanese line was engaged. The left division from the trenches in front of the Keekwan forts charged the fortified hills. Part of the advance had gained the crests and shouted "Banzai," when their triumph was cut short.

Russian Searchlights Reveal the Japanese.

Suddenly the two powerful searchlights of the east forts lighted up the Japanese lines, and Russian rifles and machine guns poured a deadly hail into the clearly visible ranks of the attacking troops.

Despite the awful process of the unequal annihilation, the Japanese stubbornly held the positions gained and their machine guns quickly located and quieted the Russian quickfirers. Finally the Japanese were slowly forced down the slopes to the trenches below.

During the night of the 24th the ranks of the Japanese were so decimated by the furious shrapnel fire of the Russians that they were forced to retire to the valley below the captured forts, and what might have been a successful general assault, with the capture of the fortified ridge east of Port Arthur, was converted by the Russian tactics into a repulse, redeemed in part by the wonderful fighting qualities of the Japanese infantry and their refusal to accept what seemed to be the inevitable.

The Japanese casualties were 14,000. The center division alone lost 6,000 and a single regiment lost 2,500. Only six officers and 200 men of this regiment were left after the fight.

The Japanese never repeated the attempt to capture the defenses of

Port Arthur by direct assault, but settled down to sapping and making parallels. In one instance they succeeded in tunnelling a fort unknown to the Russians, and exploding two tons of dynamite, blowing the fortification into fragments. Many sanguinary hand-to-hand conflicts took place in these subterranean galleries, for frequently the besieged in turn surprised the besiegers by countermining. In the meantime the Russians made many unsuccessful attempts to recapture Banjusan fort, and failing in these attempts they resorted to sorties to delay the work and to harass the besiegers. Finally the sappers and miners had made such progress that it was announced from headquarters that the siege operations would be finished with a general assault September 19, one of the main objects being the capture of 203 Meter Hill and other forts in its vicinity. The first point attacked was Nahaokayama, a strongly fortified ridge north of 203 Meter Hill. Regiment after regiment advanced to the assault, and in spite of overwhelming losses and repeated repulses the fort on the crest was carried. The last rush of the Japanese was a splendid spectacle, ending with a bayonet encounter with the Russians. Swords, hand grenades, even stones were used by both sides, and the utmost ferocity was displayed.

The Desperate Struggle Continues.

This success gave the Japanese possession of Fort Kouropatkin, four forts south of Suishiying mountain, and two forts southeast of 174 Meter Hill. The Russian attacks on the Japanese miners and the Japanese shelling of the forts, city, and fleet continued throughout the early part of October, the Russians varying the routine October 10 with a night attack, in which they used dynamite against the west fort on Panlung mountain. They were repulsed.

On October 16, the Japanese captured a fort in the center of Rihlung mountain after a desperate struggle. From October 18 they continued to drive their trenches forward, the Russians stubbornly resisting, and although the closing days of the month brought notable successes to the besiegers, they also met with serious reverses. On October 28, while they gained the counterscarps of Rihlung and Sungshu forts and cap-

tured "P" fort, they lost 2,000 men and were forced to abandon the position. Then came November with its furious battles, the Japanese gaining ground almost inch by inch. On December 6 came the capture of 203 Meter Hill, which overlooked every foot of Port Arthur and the harbor. From its crest Japanese officers were enabled to direct the fire of the heavy guns with such unerring aim that the Russian ships at anchor in the bay were destroyed one by one. One battleship, however, remained, the Sevastopol, which, driven from the harbor, took up its position in the roadstead, only to be destroyed by Admiral Togo's torpedo boats.

The destruction of the Russian fleet was followed by the loss of the great forts north of the city. First Keekwan was captured, then, on December 28, Rihlung fell, and on the 31st the Japanese took the formidable stronghold on Sungshu mountain. On the first day of January, when the forts on Panlung and Wantai mountains were captured, besieger and besieged knew that the end was at hand.

General Stoessel Surrenders.

The termination of the siege came with dramatic suddenness. Even the Japanese, who knew that the fortress was doomed to fall within a short time, were surprised. At five o'clock, on the afternoon of January 1, a Russian officer, bearing a flag of truce, entered the Japanese lines with a letter from General Stoessel, addressed to General Nogi.

The terms governing Port Arthur's surrender, as later arranged, were in substance as follows—the rank and file of the prisoners to be sent to Japan until the close of the war; the officers to return to Russia on parole. On January 4, General Nogi and the victorious Japanese army made a formal entry into the captured city.

During the siege 265 per cent of the garrison were put out of action. This remarkable fact was due to wounded men returning to the front. Cases have been recorded where men have gone to hospitals four times —some seven times—returning convalescent to the forts.

The number of officers killed was proportionately greater than in any battle known in history. This was due to the frequent lethargic

condition of the men, who, without food and without sleep, moved only when ordered by their officers. The Russians estimate that the taking of the fortress cost Japan $100,000,000.

Number Killed and Wounded During the Siege.

The following table shows the losses on both sides during the siege of Port Arthur:

Date.	Japanese.	Russian.
June 24-25—Capture of Lounvantien	2,800	800
July 26-28—Capture of Wolf Mountain	3,700	1,300
July 30—Capture of outer trenches	1,200	400
Aug. 8—Capture of Takushan	650	420
Aug. 9—Capture of Shahkushan	1,400	700
Aug. 14—Repulse at 174 Meter Hill	900	400
Aug. 19-24—First attempt to take eastern and northern forts by direct assault	14,000	3,500
Sept. 8—Repulses of Russian sorties for ten days	2,800	1,200
Sept. 20—Capture of Fort Kouropatkin, four forts south of Suishiying, and two forts southeast of 174 Meter Hill	2,800	.....
Sept. 20—Jap repulse at 203 Meter Hill	1,600	185
Sept. 25—Russians repulsed in effort to capture trenches on Rihlung Mountain	400	600
Sept. 27—Russians again repulsed on Rihlung	200	400
Oct. 2—Russians repulsed in general sortie	300	750
Oct. 4—Russians surprised on Yenchiang Hill	80	40
Oct. 10—Russians repulsed on Panlung Mountain	325	400
Oct. 16—Fighting on Rihlung and Sungshu Mountain	1,300	600
Oct. 30—Capture of counterscarps, of Sungshu and Rihlung forts; capture of "P" fort, lost and recaptured	2,000	700
Nov. 5-6—Battle on Etse Mountain	1,200	600
Nov. 13—Russian sortie repulsed	200	300
Nov. 22—Battle on Etse Mountain	250	325
Nov. 26—Jap assault on Rihlung, Keekwan and Sungshu forts	800	400
Nov. 30—Capture of 203 Meter Hill	6,800	5,000
Dec. 18—Russian forlorn hope sortie repulsed	800	3,000
Dec. 19—Capture of Fort Keekwan	350	300
Dec. 26—Capture of Fort Rihlung	300	185
Dec. 31—Capture of Fort Sungshu	125	165
Jan. 1—Capture of Forts Panlung and Wantai	200	225
Total	47,480	22,745

General Stoessel Describes the Horrors of the Siege.

Written December 28.

The position of the fortress is becoming very painful. Our principal enemies are scurvy, which is mowing the men, and eleven-inch shells, which know no obstacle and against which there is no protection. There only remain a few who have not been attacked by scurvy. We have taken all the possible measures, but the disease is spreading. The passive endurance of the enemy's bombardment, the eleven-inch shells, the impossibility of replying for want of ammunition, the outbreak of scurvy, and the loss of a mass of officers —all these causes diminish daily the capabilities of the defense. The tale of the losses of higher officers is an indication of the enormous losses we have sustained.

Of ten generals, two, Kondratenko and Tserpitsky, have been killed, Raznatovsky is

dead, two are wounded, myself and Gennadeire, while Gorbatowsky is suffering from contusions. Of nine regimental commanders and colonels, Prince Matchabeli Naoumenko has been killed, Dourire and Glagolew have succumbed to wounds, and four others have been wounded. One lieutenant colonel has been killed and two are wounded.

Among the field artillery Col. Irman was wounded, Col. Peteroff was killed, and six officers were wounded. Among the other high officers there was an enormous percentage of killed or several times wounded. Many companies are commanded by ensigns and the companies only average sixty men strong. The Japanese since Dec. 18 have refrained from assaulting. Yesterday they exploded a mine under the fortifications of fort No. 5, and about a score of hardy Japanese mounted the rampart, but were exterminated by bayonets and hand grenades. In revenge the Japanese bombarded all night long and all day long with eleven-inch shells, especially the hospitals and ambulances, although knowing full well that there was no possibility of our wounded heroes joining the ranks of the defenders. There are 14,000 sick and wounded in the hospitals and the number increases by about 700 daily.

Written December 29.

At 10 o'clock yesterday morning the Japanese blew up part of the parapet of fort No. 30. They afterward opened a severe bombardment along the whole front, but especially on fort No. 3. At about 3 o'clock in the afternoon they dashed to the attack of the parapet from the moat and glacis, where they had been held in readiness. Two attacks were repulsed, but the Japanese occupied the funnel shaped opening formed by the explosion, and, reinforced by their reserves, began to run across the moat in groups of about five. They occupied the parapet and at dusk two battalions had entered the interior of the fort.

Our troops fought from the intrenchments, which were badly damaged. Part of our troops hid themselves in the casemates, but the Japanese placed machine guns in front of the exit from the casemates, thus depriving our men hidden there of all possibility of making an attack.

Three counter attacks from the outside by our reserves met with no success. The fort consequently remained in possession of the Japanese. Our losses were considerable, especially in officers.

The survivors of the garrison succeeded in getting out of the fort by the windows. By the occupation of this fort the Japanese became masters of the whole north front and the fortress can hold out only a few days more. We have almost no ammunition. I will take measures to prevent carnage in the streets. Scurvy is sensibly weakening the garrison. I have now under arms only 10,000 men, all sick. Gens. Fock and Nikitina have been veritable heroes and admirable collaborators. GENERAL STOESSEL.

On the first day of January, 1905, with Port Arthur fallen, Kouropatkin defeated in every battle and held at bay beyond the Shakhe River, Russia's eastern fleet destroyed and Admiral Togo, the Nelson of Japan, ready to turn his attention to the Baltic squadron (whose only accomplishment had been its attack upon an English trawling fleet, in which two innocent fishermen were killed, an act which nearly precipitated war with Great Britain), the soldiers of the Mikado could cry, with hearts suffused with joy, "Banzai! Banzai!" for victory had indeed "perched upon the standards" of the little island empire.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

THE BATTLE OF MUKDEN

Rennenkampf's Defeat—The Advance of Kuroki and Oku—Battling Behind Piles of Corpses—The Japanese Fight like Demons—A Bloody Struggle in a Snowstorm—Nogi and His Port Arthur Veterans—The Little Islanders Throw their Lives Away—Recklessly Mad Rushes—Retreating Russians Kiss the Bloodstained Earth—Kouropatkin's Army Surrounded—The Occupation of Mukden—Headlong Retreat of the Russians to Tieling—The Spoils of War—Capture of Tieling—The Massacre at St. Petersburg—Assassination of Grand Duke Sergius.

A MILLION MEN in the throes of mortal combat for eighteen days and nights—a battlefield extending along a front of eighty miles through trackless mountains, across ice-bound rivers, and over mighty snow-covered plains—then the shattered remnant of a mighty army in panic stricken retreat. This in a few words is the story of Mukden, one of the greatest conflicts in the history of the world.

A Death-Dealing Storm of Lead.

The culminating struggle—last scene of all that ended this grewsome tragedy—was one of terrific grandeur. It has been compared to a vast thunderstorm of lead, bullets, and shrapnel, pelting mercilessly a strip of land twenty miles long, seven miles broad, mowing down victims by the thousands, the explosions of shimose and the scythelike work of six-inch shells razing whole villages. Through this hell of fire, Russian and Japanese charged and countercharged by regiments. In spite of the fact that many of the divisions had been hammered by batteries unceasingly for a fortnight, they fought with wonderful determination and bravery. Regiments were reduced to companies, companies to squads. But these scattered fragments in some miraculous way succeeded in uniting their forces and re-entering the fight. The soil of the valley was thickly sown with pieces of shells and bits of shrapnel and covered with the bodies of the slain. Often men dropped dead, suffocated with the fumes of melinite, lyddite and shimose, and the stifling gases of smokeless powder. Then the Russian leader began burning his stores and the retreat became a rout.

How the Battle of Mukden Began.

The battle of Mukden began on February 19th when the Japanese captured Haba Pass, fifty-two miles south of Mukden, the advance post of General Rennekampf, who had been ordered to assume the aggressive against the Japanese forces. Vanze Pass was taken the following day and the Russian advance hurled back on Tsinkhectchen, Rennenkampf's base, forty-five miles southeast of Mukden. The Russian general made several counter attacks but the Japanese, coming on in constantly increasing numbers, succeeded, on February 22, in flanking the Russian position at Tsinkhetchen, and on February 24 Rennenkampf began a disastrous retreat to the Hun River, twenty-six miles to the northward.

Russian Heroism of No Avail.

For two days Rennenkampf endeavored to hold his ground between Tsinkhetchen and Da Pass, eight miles to the northward, but was compelled to beat a hasty retreat, thirteen miles in a blinding snowstorm, managing to save his guns but losing most of his supplies. He finally succeeded in reaching the north bank of the Hun with the shattered remnants of his army and fell back to the railroad.

Up to March 1 the fighting had been along the extreme eastern lines, the Japanese force engaged being the Fifth Army under Lieutenant General Kawimura, which had advanced from Saimatze to a position east of Kuroki's forces. March 1, Kuroki began his advance, the battle thus extending westward, crossed the Shakhe river and seized Kaotu Pass, thirty-two miles southeast of Mukden. On the same day Oku began his attack on the Russian right wing, twenty-six miles southwest of Mukden, the Japanese using the Port Arthur eleven-inch howitzers, the largest ever used in field fighting. This bombardment was probably the heaviest ever known. Hundreds of guns of all sizes rained shells on the Russian positions, destroyed the defenses and struck consternation to the hearts of the Russian troops, within the zone of fire. The Japanese infantry then advanced to the attack.

The Demoniac Bravery of the Japanese.

The Mikado's troops fought like demons making attack after attack, especially on the center and westward utterly reckless of sacrifices, fearlessly advancing against infantry fire and machine guns which literally mowed down

the advancing columns, making human life so cheap that the survivors intrenched themselves behind great piles of corpses and continued the battle with unabated vigor.

During the night of March 1 the Japanese took many important Russian defenses that gave Oku's men a foothold for their subsequent attacks. The capture of the village of Chintan enabled the Japanese to turn the Russian right flank, thereby securing a pivot to swing northward to the west of the Hun river.

Reckless Night Attacks and Bayonet Charges.

These operations were conducted with great difficulty. The Russian works were strongly defended by entanglements and machine guns, and the Russians used search lights and star shells, but in spite of these the Japanese, under cover of a heavy bombardment, rushed the works at the point of the bayonet, killing many of the Russians and imprisoning others in the trenches.

On the morning of March 2 the Japanese captured the enemy's position at Huande, after a most sensational charge. Small detachments of Japanese troops sent to reconnoiter the Russian positions succeeded by marvelous ingenuity and reckless bravery, in getting close to the Russian entrenchments under the protection of a snowstorm, when they suddenly charged and drove the vastly superior force from the trenches.

Nogi and Oku to the Fore.

In the meantime Oku's troops pressed steadily forward, fighting every foot of the way. The Russians stubbornly contested the reckless advance of the little Islanders for a time but finally gave way under repeated defeats and heavy losses, throwing away their arms and clothing and even abandoning their stores.

While Oku was thus alternately hammering and charging the Russian right wing, he formed a screen from behind which General Nogi, the hero of the Port Arthur siege, led his veteran divisions northward by forced marches twenty-six miles. Kouropatkin knew nothing of the sensational flanking march until, without warning, the roar of Nogi's guns, five miles west of Mukden, told him that he had been outgeneraled, and that his whole position had been turned.

The Hero of Port Arthur Takes a Daring Chance.

Nogi took as daring a chance as did Kuroki at the battle of Liaoyang. West of Mukden there was only a frozen plain, on which not even a temporary fortification could be raised, but the Port Arthur veterans advanced to the attack, shouting in Russian:

"Out of the way for us; we are from Port Arthur."

They offered their lives with the same fanatical bravery and were as unshaken by heavy losses as at the siege of Port Arthur

While Nogi was marching around to the west of Mukden and Kuroki was driving in the Russian army on the east, Nodzu was holding the Russian center on the south, preventing it from going to the assistance of either the right or left wings.

Human Lives of No Value.

On March 3, the northward advance of the Japanese had approached so near Mukden that the bursting of the shrapnel could be seen from the city, which was consequently thrown into dire confusion. The carnage on this day at the center and on both flanks was frightful. The Japanese simply threw away their lives, hurling themselves against the seemingly impregnable fortifications of the Russians. These awful sacrifices held the center in check and covered General Nogi's attack on the west, which resulted in the complete turning of the Russian right and made sure the overwhelming defeat of the Russian army.

The Russians Retire in Confusion.

In the meantime the left Japanese army after a series of recklessly mad charges, had succeeded in fighting their way to a point on the main road five miles north of Mukden. The Russians doggedly endeavored to check the onward rush of the Japanese in vain, finally retreating in disorder before their foes. It is believed that some of the Russian soldiers were disheartened by the fall of Port Arthur, and were almost in open revolt. A number of strong positions were given up without a show of resistance and the battlefield showed evidence of hasty retreat, being covered with clothing, heavy felt boots, and thousands of whips thrown away probably because they impeded the Russians' hasty flight. Many rifles and thousands of clips of rifle cartridges were also thrown away, the Russians retiring east and

north in confusion. It was evident that all their plans for retreat were disconcerted by the rapid rushes of the Japanese.

Preferred Death to Retreat.

To others, so cruelly, so bitterly disappointing was the order to abandon the positions on which so many of their comrades had fallen that many of the soldiers, sobbing, knelt and kissed the blood-stained earth and then gloomily and unwillingly carried out the order to retire. On every hand privates were asking their leaders why and getting no explanation.

In the depth of the night lines of troops moved out of the intrenchments, leaving the bodies of their fellows, buried and unburied, behind, and then burned the stores and provisions which were abandoned by the unexpected retreat, enormous fires illuminating the road afar. The retreat was executed in perfect order, and the troopers, leaving Madyadany to the eastward, fell back to the appointed positions on the Hun River. Officers and men alike felt the blow keenly. "Why, oh why," sobbed one, "did not they let us die in our positions?"

"War is Hell!"

The territory in front of the Russians' positions was a plain of death. Bodies strewed the debatable ground, from which neither side could remove its dead. No quarter had been asked for or given by either side; the enmity ceased only in death. The wounded, with breasts torn open by shrapnel or bayonet, roused their flagging energies for one more shot. Here, a Japanese sitting upon a stone, a moment's pause for rest, and then eternity—there, a Russian, his face dogged even in death, horribly mutilated by a shimose shell—and just beyond, two foes with bayonets sheathed in each other's breasts. Everywhere, corpses—corpses—corpses.

The road northward was crowded so far as the eye could reach by a continuous file of two-wheeled Chinese carts full of Russian wounded, the best testimony of the valor with which the army of the East, fighting continuously for a fortnight, had defended every inch of the ground over which it was compelled by superior numbers to retire.

The Pitiful Condition of the Wounded.

Each cart bore from three to five wounded men whose exhaustion was almost too utter for them to feel pain. Scarcely a groan or cry was heard —not even the moans of the dying; only the dismal creak of the rude wheels

and the thud of the ponies' hoofs. Most of the wounded had their heads covered with Chinese blankets or dirty coats stiff with coagulated blood hiding wan and dirty faces distorted with pain, sunken eyes and expanded nostrils. Here and there was seen a cart with two wounded men, between whom was a corpse which every jolt pounded against the helpless living comrades of the man on whose face death had sealed the distortion of unbearable agony.

The Retreat to Tieling.

On March 5, the Japanese made a series of desperate attacks on the Russian divisions west and south of Mukden. All of these attacks were repulsed with enormous losses of life on both sides. On the morning of the 7th the Japanese made a general assault convinced that victory was at hand. The night before they had seen the sky illuminated with the fires of burning stores, and knew that Kouropatkin had commenced his retreat to the north. Then came the flight of the Russian left wing, against which Kuroki had been hurling his soldiers. This was the beginning of a series of desperate attacks against the retreating Russians, intended to break up the army of Kouropatkin and compel the surrender of the detached divisions. The first result was the destruction of the Russian center and the occupation of Mukden by Oyama, followed by the headlong retreat of the Russians to Tieling.

Part of the Army Saved from Destruction.

The bravery of Generals Kaulbars and Bilderling by their masterly rear-guard actions saved a part of the Russian army from immediate annihilation and enabled it to reach Tieling in safety. Kaulbars with a comparatively small force held a solid front against 80,000 Japanese troops, commanded by General Nogi, and although he left thousands of his dead behind him in his slow retiring movement, he prevented Nogi from outflanking Kouropatkin or cutting through to the center of his retreat. Bilderling was forced to stand against the formidable armies of Oku and Nodzu at the center. And although his lines were broken many times he hurled his divisions into the gaps and held the enemy in check.

Fearful Losses in Killed, Captured and Wounded.

The Russian losses at the battle of Mukden were approximately 200,000 killed, wounded and prisoners. The total casualties on the Japanese side

were about 50,000. The spoils of war included 100,000 rifles, 300,000 shells, 25,000,000 rounds of ammunition, 10,000 bushels of wheat, 300,000 bushels of fodder, 100 large guns, 1,000,000 loaves of bread, besides clothing and accoutrements, tents, railway outfit, telegraph wire and poles, beds, stoves, and other property.

Kouropatkin Burns His Stores.

On the night of March 9 the retreat of the Russian army commenced, and hundreds of ammunition and hospital trains were despatched to Tieling. At this time an unceasing battle was in progress, north of Mukden, therefore the trains traveled unlighted and without whistling. Meanwhile, the city of Mukden presented a remarkable scene. All about rose the flames of burning stores. Occasionally boxes of cartridges exploded, and rockets rose and burst into clusters of stars. The fitful light of the fires revealed the dead lying in heaps, hundreds of wounded left behind to die or be captured and the nameless horrors of a besieged city. And beyond the glare was a surging, disorganized mass of soldiers fleeing to their last refuge at Tieling, with the victory-flushed foe in hot pursuit.

On March 16 came the report that the forces of Japan, relentlessly pursuing the retreating enemy, had surrounded and captured Tieling, thus putting the finishing touches to a victory as welcome to Japan as it must have been humiliating to Russia. From the moment that the news of the disastrous defeat at Mukden reached St. Petersburg the downfall of General Kouropatkin was certain. The Czar at once issued an order dismissing and recalling the Russian commander. Kouropatkin's discomfiture was further increased by the appointment of General Linevitch, his personal enemy, to the command of the army of Manchuria.

A Reign of Terror in Russia.

Meanwhile, in the land of the Czar, the agitation for constitutional reform had assumed formidable proportions. The temper of the people rose to fever heat. An attempt was made on the life of the Emperor while he was attending the religious ceremony of blessing the waters of the Neva. The artillery, stationed opposite the pavilion in which stood the Czar and his suite, was firing a salute, when a charge of shot came crashing through the crowd. Someone had placed a loaded cartridge in one of the guns.

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The Czar escaped death by a miracle. Then occurred a terrible catastrophe that marked a new chapter in Russian history. On January 22, the workmen of St. Petersburg marched in a body to the Winter Palace with the intention of presenting a petition to the Czar, setting forth their wrongs and asking for redress. Upon arriving at the palace they found troops drawn up to receive them, but anticipating no danger, the leader of the procession, Father Gopon, said in a loud voice: "We are going to present a petition to the Emperor." The commander of the troops replied: "The road is barred." Unheeding the almost certain death in the leveled rifles, the brave priest gave the order to march on. Instantly there came the order to fire and a hail of lead poured into the people's ranks. Hundreds were killed and wounded. Other massacres followed in different parts of the city, but late in the afternoon came the crowning horror, when a regiment of bloodthirsty Cossacks charged upon a crowd of people gathered in front of the palace and mercilessly cut down scores of men, women, and children.

The massacre at St. Petersburg was followed by riots and strikes in other Russian cities. Petitions were presented to the Czar; he received delegations of workingmen, but the "little father," promising much and doing nothing, failed to grasp the opportunity to become the benefactor of his people. Then came the horrible assassination of Grand Duke Sergius, the Czar's evil genius, and the most hated man in Russia. Sergius was blown to pieces by a bomb, hurled beneath the wheels of his carriage as he was driving through Moscow. The act was committed by an agent of the revolutionary party which had, through a public decree imposed a sentence of death upon the Czar and all his advisers who were inimical to the cause of the people. No wonder that the Emperor exclaimed at the time: "When will all this end?"

DESTRUCTION OF THE RUSSIAN WARSHIP "BORODINO" IN THE STRAITS OF KOREA.

The "Borodino," a first class battleship of 16,000 horse power, carrying 740 men, with armor belt 11 inches thick, equipped with 4 twelve-inch, 12 six-inch and 46 rapid fire guns and valued at $5,200,000, was the first vessel sunk in the battle of the Korean Straits. According to the testimony of one of the rescued officers, the boat was a veritable slaughter pen. Entire gun crews were cut to pieces by the merciless Japanese fire. The decks were rivers of blood. Enveloped in a hail of bursting shells, with steering-gear disabled, the brave Russian sailors kept up a gallant resistance to the last. Suddenly a swarm of torpedo boats surrounded the warship, there was a terrific explosion and the gallant craft disappeared beneath the waves.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

THE BATTLE IN THE STRAITS OF KOREA

The Second Pacific Squadron a Formidable Armada—The Dash for Vladivostok—Rojestvensky's Ruse—Togo's Battle Signal—A Demoralized Fleet—A Superbly Terrible Scene—Caught in a Trap—The "Hornets" of the Sea Finish the Work of Destruction—Every Russian Boat a Slaughter Pen—Fire Adds to the Horror—The Borodino's Gallant Fight—Blown to Fragments and Sunk—Appalling Results of the Battle.

AFTER the death of Makaroff in the Petropavlovsk and Witsoeft in the Czarvitch, the Czar in desperation ordered Admiral Rojestvensky to organize a fleet, take it to the Far East, and endeavor to wrest the supremacy of the seas from Japan. The result was the Second Pacific Squadron consisting of fifty or more war ships, colliers and transports.

A Victory without Parallel.

Two incidents marked the voyage of the Russian squadron to the seat of war. One was the wanton attack made upon a fleet of fishing boats off the coast of England, as already related, the other was the alleged violation of neutrality on the part of France, who, it was claimed, rendered great aid to Rojestvensky at Madagascar and various Indo-China ports. After effecting a junction with the division under Vice Admiral Nebogatoff, who had been sent to his aid, the Russian commander averted an international crisis by leaving French waters and sailing for Vladivostok. On Saturday, May 27, the Russian squadron arrived in the Straits of Korea, where Togo was lying in wait with practically the entire navy of Japan. Two days later, when it became known that the Czar's magnificent armada, the most formidable fleet ever gathered together, had been completely annihilated, the world stood aghast at the immensity of the disaster to the Russian Empire.

The Japanese victory in the Korean Straits is not only without parallel in naval history, but will rank among the decisive battles of the world. Togo's marvelous achievement in wiping out the Russian fleet practically ended the war, settled the command of the eastern seas and the future of the Orient. To quote from a well-known authority, "The east is to be Mongol, not slave; yellow, not white. It is to be free, not bond. It is to work out its salvation

under the sympathetic leadership of the intelligent and progressive Japanese, not under the dictation of the despotic Russian autocracy. The Japanese victory will have important effects in Russia as well as in the East. It cannot fail to hasten the downfall of the bureaucracy and the rise of free institutions."

Rojestvensky Attempts to Deceive His Enemy.

When Admiral Rojestvensky was at Saddle Islands, his last coaling station before the dash for Vladivostok, he completed his plan of campaign. He sent five of his colliers and supply ships to Shanghai, hoping to draw Togo's fleet away from the Korean Straits. He then ordered the rest of his colliers and supply ships to pass out between the Liuchiu Islands and Formosa, east of Japan and to make Vladivostok through the Tsugaru Straits. In the meantime Rojestvensky had divided his fleet for the purpose of further deceiving the Japanese commander, with instructions to reassemble near the Korean Straits, which Rojestvensky had decided to force. He approached the narrow passage through which he hoped to gain the Sea of Japan with his fleet well filled with coal, every gun loaded, and his men on duty beside their weapons.

It seems, however, that Admiral Togo was not to be decoyed away from his position for the reason that his fast sailing scout ships had kept him constantly informed of Rojestvensky's movements. That is the reason why the combined Japanese fleet with every vessel ready for action, were in a position to oppose the passage of the Russian squadron.

"The Destiny of Our Empire Depends Upon This Action."

The warships of the Czar were sighted about 6 o'clock Saturday morning, May 27. The Japanese ships hoisted the flag of action, the Mikasa, Togo's flagship, signaling:

"The destiny of our empire depends upon this action. You are all expected to do your utmost."

The Japanese, however, did not advance to meet them, because Togo had planned to drive them upon mines, which he had placed southeast of Tsushima Islands. Sailing unsuspectedly on his course, Rojestvensky suddenly came upon the Japanese fleet, which opened fire upon him. The Russian commander naturally deviated slightly from his course and in so doing ran upon the mines. The Borodino, a first-class battleship, built at a cost of

over five million dollars, went to the bottom and several others were badly damaged. Togo then directed a terrific fire against the Russians, his object being to destroy the rapid fire guns and as many of the enemy's searchlights as possible, in order to enable his torpedo boats and submarines to get close to the enemy's ships and complete the work of destruction at night. The battle lasted until nightfall with the odds decidedly in favor of the Japanese. After the sun had set, Togo ordered his torpedo craft to close in upon the Russian ships, and on Sunday morning Rojestvensky found to his horror and amazement that two battleships, three cruisers and several torpedo boats had been sunk and two battleships rendered absolutely useless.

A Terrific Hail of Fire.

Then commenced an all-day battle. The Russians appeared to be powerless to resist the fierce onset of their enemies. Demoralized by the incessant pounding they had received the afternoon before, nearly every ship damaged more or less, distracted by the terrible strain of meeting torpedo attacks all night, in the words of an eye-witness, "They were no longer a fleet; they were a mass of frightened vessels like so many scare-stricken sheep, which could not hold together." They scattered, although they continued on their way to that haven of refuge, Vladivostok, six hundred miles away, but they made poor speed. The Japanese battleships and armored cruisers, fresh out of the dock, kept after them, giving then no rest and making them exhaust every bit of ammunition in fruitless efforts to answer the terrific hail of fire to which they were subjected.

A Remnant Weak and Small.

All day the Russians ran, and when night came still they had no rest. The torpedo boats had given way to the destroyers, it is believed because of the greater radius of action of the latter, and the third stage of the engagement began.

Before the latter and the armor-clads got through their awful work during Sunday night Rojestvensky's fleet had dwindled down to five fleeing men-of-war, nine torpedo boat destroyers, and some auxiliary cruisers and repair ships.

The scene during Saturday's battle, as described by an eye-witness, must have been superbly terrible. The guns of nearly fifty warships were being fired, and now and again a crash was heard as the reports coincided.

For a time the belligerents gave shot for shot. All through the conflict both fleets were on the move, but the Russians were compelled to deviate from their original course.

Surrounded by Death-dealing Squadrons.

With a hostile squadron each side and another ahead, Rojestvensky practically was defeated within a few hours. There was no possible direction for him to turn. He had fallen into a trap which had been awaiting him ever since he left Madagascar. Hesitation was displayed in the tactics of his fleet and this proved the forerunner of utter confusion.

The Japanese knew instantly that the Russians were beaten, and the concentration of fire now became absolutely infernal. Every gun was trained. The Russians were caught in a cul de sac. Long lines of smoke, like sea clouds, floated across the water, interspersed with flashes of artillery.

At 2:10 p. m. the bombardment reached its zenith. Between 3 o'clock and 5 o'clock in the afternoon a Russian cruiser of the Admiral Nakhimoff class and the converted cruiser Kamtschatka foundered. Previously their upper works had been shattered into splinters of wood, iron and steel.

Then the Russian fleet broke into utter disorder and the vessels no longer preserved their formation. They went along in a zigzag course, some pointed east and others west. At that moment it became evident that Rojestvensky was completely defeated.

The Unerring Judgment of the Japanese.

The Japanese with that judgment which in supreme moments amounts to inspiration now advanced to close quarters. The Russian ships under a fire which rendered them all the more terribly helpless by the shortened range at which the Japanese were shooting, no longer existed as a fleet. The detached squadrons co-ordinated in no direction and were utterly demoralized. Gradually they passed towards their enemy's coast of Nagata province.

The fighting continued until sunset. The wind had gone down and it was a glorious night. The Korean sea, usually so rough, was now smooth, transparent, and blue under the darkness of night. The ships stood out something more than specters, something less than citadels.

When the darkness set in the Russians were still edging towards the north, but the Japanese in horizontal lines lay across the enemy's bows, an effective barrier linked with guns.

Under Cover of Darkness the Destruction is Completed.

At 8 p. m. the Japanese destroyers and torpedo boats went forward like a great cloud of locusts. The sea was swept by pale tracks of innumerable searchlights. The work of the day was over, the work of the night had begun. The large Japanese warships, which had found the range of the Russian ship so well by light of day, covered the torpedo attack. Beneath the shells from the great guns the little vessels darted forth to sting and sink the enemy. There were scores and scores of them. Rojestvensky never could have dreamed that Japan had such a flotilla.

Under the fire of the Russian ships, all of whose guns were trained upon them, the little craft dashed on. One moment a shot would strike the water, but not before the boat had darted towards the sides of the heavy warships.

The night's work resulted in the sinking of the battleships Emperor Alexander III., Oslabya, and Navarin, and three cruisers.

The Battle Rages with Unabated Fierceness.

No rest was allowed the enemy. When Sunday dawned the Japanese fleet came to still closer range, pressing the Russians on to the northern coast of Nagata. All day long the battle raged with unabated fierceness, but the Russians had no strategical position from which they could offer an effective resistance.

The Japanese ships always kept ahead of the Russians. The battle was resumed at 9 o'clock Sunday morning, twelve miles east of Chiyupoyn bay, and lasted all day. Here the Russians suffered their heaviest losses. They seemed unprepared to repel night attacks. During the first night attack the Russians showed nine searchlights and frustrated the attack, but clearly indicated the location of the fleet, which brought success later.

An officer of the battleship Borodino, in describing his experiences during the battle, says:

"I was in the forward barbette, in charge of one of the twelve-inch guns, when the signal to begin firing was given. The ship nearest to us was the Japanese battleship Shikishima, whose projectiles began to reach us within a few moments after the beginning of the fight. I fired the first gun at 1:30 p. m., and was overjoyed to see that it had reached its mark, for the Japanese vessel was struck in its upper works, and did not return our fire for at least ten minutes.

The Decks Raining with Projectiles.

"At this early stage of the battle Admiral Rojestvensky came aboard the Borodino and directed the fighting from the bridge.

"Almost immediately afterwards a projectile struck my barbette and rendered every one inside insensible. The barbette was filled with smoke, and I groped my way out. The decks were raining with projectiles. Dozens of men lying dead or wounded at every turn.

"When the barbette was cleared I re-entered with my crew, but only had time to fire two more rounds when two projectiles struck simultaneously and disabled both of the twelve-inch guns, wrecking the barbette and killing eighteen officers and men.

An Awful Spectacle.

"I crawed on deck, near one of the six-inch guns, which was surrounded with dead and wounded. Here I remained for an hour, during which time the Borodino became a shambles. The wardroom and steerage were crowded with the wounded. Nearly every ammunition hoist had been wrecked and shells had to be passed by hand. A shell struck the port screw and another disabled the steering gear and the signal mast was carried away.

"Presently when everything seemed worse than confusion the quartermaster told me that Admiral Rojestvensky had been wounded and was being taken to another ship, a destroyer. I saw the destroyer leave amid a hail of small arm ammunition, but fortunately none struck it.

"At 4 o'clock the Borodino began to sink down by the head. It had been hulled several times. There was no hope of saving it.

"The Japanese ships, having succeeded in breaking our battle formation, came closer and brought every available gun to bear. Our fighting tops were particular targets. Not one of the men stationed there apparently is alive. I volunteered to go up with a few men. The sight there, even in the midst of the desperate battle, was so terrible that it haunted me and has robbed me of sleep ever since. The men in the tops had been hacked to pieces by the fire of the Japanese. The machine guns were hopelessly ruined.

"Fire broke out in several places, and this added to the horrors of our already sorely tried vessel. The fire call was sounded, but there were so many dead or wounded, and the projectiles were falling so fast, that there was no chance to subdue the flames. It was, therefore, resolved to withdraw

from the line of fighting. Our steering apparatus had been repaired, but eight Japanese ships closed around us and bombarded us from every side. Our forward guns were useless, but we did good work with the after twelve-inch guns and those of the six-inch guns which were not out of action, though they were worked with only half their complement of men.

Fighting Desperately to the Last.

"The Borodino sank lower and lower, a fine target to the overwhelming superiority of the enemy, but we fought desperately, although hopelessly.

"Towards evening, after a long afternoon of terrible exhaustion, during which there was neither time to eat nor drink, and after we had lost fully 400 killed or wounded, we noticed two Japanese destroyers bearing down. One of them we sunk with a shell from a six-inch gun, but the other came on safely and launched a torpedo, which swept past our bow. We were unharmed, for the torpedo missed us. The chief engineer now came and informed us the fire had gained such headway it was impossible to keep the men below. A moment later the engine room crew were driven out by the flames. We expected every moment to be blown up and were preparing for the inevitable, when a whole flotilla of torpedo boats came down on us.

"In five minutes the end had come. The explosion caused the ship to turn turtle. I was drawn down deep and struck by pieces of wreckage, but a boat from a destroyer picked me up, with others from the Borodino, and took us to the Kasuga, from which we were transferred to shore."

Appalling Results of the Battle.

The results of the historic naval battle in the straits of Korea were appalling. Over a score of Russian warships, valued at $100,000,000 were sunk or captured; the casualties totaled nearly 15,000 men killed or taken prisoners. The Japanese losses were slight. The fleet was practically undamaged and only about 400 men were killed or wounded. Togo's achievement stamped him as the world's greatest sea fighter.